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CHAPTER XXXIX

The House of Stuart, 1603-1714

DESCENT OF THE STUART LINE

Henry VII.
|
James IV. of Scotland *m.* Margaret Tudor.
|
James V. of Scotland.
|
Mary of Scotland.
|
James VI. of Scotland, 1567-1625.
JAMES I. of England, 1603-1625.

King and Parliament

James VI. of Scotland becomes King of England.—Hardly was the breath out of Queen Elizabeth's body when a gentleman of the Court rode off to Edinburgh to bring the news to King James. He did the journey, four hundred miles, in three days. There was really no need for this haste, for there was no one in England to oppose James's accession.

Thus James VI. of Scotland, son of the unfortunate Mary, became James I. of England. The great Tudor line was succeeded by the ill-fated Stuarts. The union of England and Scotland was at last effected, owing to the marriage of Henry VII.'s daughter Margaret to James IV. It was only a union of the crowns; each country kept its own Parliament and laws. James wanted a complete union, but neither England nor Scotland would agree to it. However, he called himself King of Great Britain, joined the

English cross of St. George, red on a white ground, with the Scottish cross of St. Andrew, white on a blue ground, into a new red, white, and blue "Union" Jack or flag, and also joined the royal arms of the two countries.

James, on his accession to the English throne, was thirty-six years of age. He was married to Anne, daughter of the Protestant King of Denmark. He had three children, Henry aged nine, Elizabeth aged seven, and Charles aged two. He had been King of Scotland since Mary's flight to England in 1567, when he was one year old. His reign there had been troublous, owing to the turbulence of the nobles, the great power of the Presbyterian Church, and the struggles of the Roman Catholics. Three out of the four regents who ruled during his minority had met violent deaths. And he himself, at the age of sixteen, had been seized by some nobles, and forced to grant their demands. Lately a second attempt had been made on him, but had failed.

James's Journey to London.—After being proclaimed King of England, Ireland, and France in the market-place of Edinburgh, James I. started for London by the Great North Road through Berwick and York. His progress was very slow, taking over a month; for he stopped at all the great towns, and in many noblemen's and gentlemen's seats. Everywhere he was well received; nobles and gentry attended his Court, and the people flocked to see him. On his journey he created no less than three hundred knights. Among them was Sir Oliver Cromwell, who entertained James at Hinchinbrook Priory in Huntingdonshire. He was a connection of Thomas Cromwell, Henry VIII.'s minister, who dissolved the monasteries, and perhaps it was through him that the Priory was given to the family. Sir Oliver had a little nephew, just four years old, also named Oliver, who, no doubt, was much interested in the royal visit. Little could any one have foreseen that this boy was to overthrow the throne, and execute James's son.

James I. as a boy, with a hawk.

After ascending his new throne, James I. only once returned to Scotland. England was far more populous, richer, and more important than Scotland. In fact, from this time the Scots saw very little of their Stuart sovereigns.

James as King. "Divine Right" and the Quarrel with Parliament.—His new subjects soon found that James was a very different sovereign to Elizabeth. He was undignified in manner and appearance, ungainly in his movements, and slovenly in his dress. And, though learned and witty, he was wanting in sound sense. He himself was proud of his statesmanship and wit; and his flatterers called him the "English Solomon," but Henry IV. of France laughed at him as the "wisest fool in Christendom."

Though so very unkingly a King, James strongly upheld an idea that had recently grown up, that kings were specially appointed by God to rule in His name, and that, therefore, it was wicked to resist the "Lord's Anointed." This was known as the "Divine Right of Kings." Elizabeth, with all her exalted opinion of her rank and power, does not seem to have troubled herself about her Divine Right. The nation loyally accepted James as King by right of succession, but it saw no reason why it should not object if he went beyond what they considered his rights. As the Commons had already begun to assert themselves at the end of Elizabeth's reign, they continued to do so without any regard for Divine Right. In fact, the strong rule of the Tudors had done its work, and made England prosperous and well-governed; and what the nation now wanted was more freedom.

But the High Church party, as you will read, found James strongly on their side against the Puritans, owing to his treatment by the Church in Scotland; so they took up and taught the doctrine of Divine Right. Thus in James I.'s reign began the struggle between the King and Commons, which was mixed up with the struggle between the Puritans and the Church, in the course of which both Throne and Church were for a time overthrown. The

struggle did not begin at once. But gradually points arose in which the Commons asserted their rights, and James asserted his. So in the earlier years other events have first to be noticed.

The Puritans.—It was from the Puritan members of Parliament that the opposition to the King mostly came, especially when he sided so strongly with the Church. As the Puritans play so large a part in our history during this century, it is necessary to explain what their ideas were. They got their name, as you have read, from their wish to purify the Church from every taint of Rome. But there was another side to their character. They were serious, thoughtful people, and not only did they want what they thought a purer Church, but also a purer and more virtuous England. In the gaiety and pleasures of the Court and upper classes; in the theatre, supported by the sovereign and nobles; in the sports and merry making of the people, they saw nothing but vice and the works of the devil. They regarded themselves as the true "godly," called by God to war against the devil and Rome, which to them meant much the same thing. The favourite book of the Puritans was the Old Testament, and they compared themselves to the Jews fighting the Canaanites. So they had no more "tolerance" than the Church, and struggled to force their form of worship and ideas on the whole nation. In their zeal they went too far, confusing vicious and innocent pleasures, and not seeing the good there was in the Church. But they did a great work both for the liberty and morals of England.

Raleigh plots against Cecil. His Condemnation.—James kept on Sir Robert Cecil as his chief minister, and dismissed his rival, Sir Walter Raleigh, from his post of captain of the guard. Raleigh wanted the war against Spain to go on; but both James and Cecil saw that the time had come for making peace, for Spain could no longer injure England. Raleigh was furious, and began to plot Cecil's overthrow. Some of the conspirators, but not

Raleigh, were also plotting to put on the throne James's cousin, a young lady called Arabella Stuart, who had been brought up in England. At the same time some Roman Catholic gentlemen were plotting to seize James, and make him permit Roman Catholic worship. Cecil found out these plots, and by mixing them up made Raleigh seem guilty of treason. Some of the leaders were executed; and Raleigh was convicted, though he denied having plotted against James. But James, instead of having him executed, kept him a prisoner in the Tower, where he passed his time writing a history of the world.

Nothing was done to the innocent Arabella. But some years later she secretly married the great-nephew of Lady Jane Grey. James discovered the marriage, and, thinking it dangerous to his throne, imprisoned them both. They escaped, but Arabella was caught and put in the Tower. In her misery she went mad, and died after four years' captivity. Like Lady Jane Grey, she suffered from her nearness to the throne.

Peace with Spain, and the Hampton Court Conference, 1604.—James made peace with Spain next year. The Dutch, under their great general Maurice, were now fighting victoriously against Spain, and five years later they also made peace. It was only called a truce; for even now Spain would not admit their independence. But independent the Dutch remained; and so enterprising were they that they were soon rivalling Britain on the sea.

James had also the religious troubles to deal with. The Puritans had presented a petition to him, and in 1604 James summoned a Conference of bishops and leading Puritans to Hampton Court. He presided himself, and showed very plainly his feelings against Puritanism. "No bishops, no king," was one of his remarks; and when mention was made of Presbyterianism, he exclaimed, "It agrees with monarchy as well as God with the devil." So the Puritans got nothing by the Conference. All clergymen had to accept the existing ordinances of Church

Hampton Court.

service. Many Puritans did so, but about three hundred left the country, and joined the Independents, who in Elizabeth's reign had fled to Holland.

But one result of the Conference was that a new translation of the Bible was ordered, which was published in 1611. It is our present "Authorised Version."

The Gunpowder Plot, November 5, 1605.—As to the Roman Catholics, James had wished to give them more freedom, but the feeling of the country was against him. So Catesby, a rich Roman Catholic of Warwickshire, egged on by the Jesuits, plotted with some of his friends. Among the conspirators was a Yorkshire gentleman called Guido, or Guy, Fawkes. He had fought for Spain in the Netherlands, where he had seen many sieges. One way of attacking a town is to blow up a part of the fortifications with gunpowder by digging a long "mine" or tunnel under them. So Fawkes suggested that the House of Lords should be blown up in this way at the opening of Parliament for its second session. The King, Lords, and Commons, who would be there, would be killed; and in the confusion that would follow the conspirators would seize the government.

A house in Westminster was hired, and a mine was dug from it to the Houses of Parliament. But when they reached the foundation walls they found out that there was a cellar to be hired under the House of Lords. So they gave up mining and took the cellar, and stored in it thirty-six barrels of gunpowder under a pile of faggots. This was in the spring of 1605; Parliament was not to meet till November; so the conspirators separated for a time. Catesby, wanting more money, brought some neighbours into the plot. As November 5th, the day of the opening of Parliament, drew near, one of the new conspirators wrote an unsigned letter to his brother-in-law, who was a peer, warning him not to go to the opening as something terrible would happen. He probably did this really by arrangement with his brother-in-law, to stop the plot, and warn his fellow-conspirators to

escape; for his brother-in-law read the letter out loud to the gentlemen of his household. The letter was then taken to James. The conspirators did not take warning. Nothing, however, was done by the government till the evening before the 5th, when the vaults were searched; and Fawkes was found in the cellar and arrested. The other conspirators, who had assembled in Warwickshire under pretence of a hunting-party, fled when they heard that Fawkes was arrested. They were pursued; Catesby and two others were killed defending themselves; the survivors were taken to London. Fawkes was tortured to make him reveal the whole plot. He and the others were executed early the next year. Among the victims was the head of the Jesuits in England, though it is doubtful if he really was in the plot.

The result of the Gunpowder Plot was that Parliament passed more laws against the Roman Catholics; and the people conceived a still more intense hatred of Popery which has lasted till the present day. Ever since the vaults of the Houses of Parliament have been searched the day before Parliament meets. The Fifth of November is still the favourite day for fireworks; and street boys still, occasionally, parade the streets with hideous figures on chairs, called "Guys," to represent Guy Fawkes, and singing the following verse, to gain pennies from the passers-by :—

> "Please to remember the Fifth of November,
> Gunpowder treason and plot;
> I don't see a reason why gunpowder treason
> Should ever be forgot."

From this custom the word "guy" has come to mean an ugly person.

Colonisation. Second Foundation of Virginia, 1607.—Nothing had been settled in the peace with Spain about America. But Spain was no longer strong enough to keep up her claim to the whole of the north. So, two years after the peace, some merchants obtained a fresh charter

from James for a new Virginian Company, and sent out about a hundred and fifty settlers, mostly needy gentlemen adventurers. They sailed in three ships from London in December 1606, and landed in Chesapeake Bay the next April. On a river, which they called the James in honour of the King, they founded a little settlement called Jamestown. Gold was still the object, and as none was found the settlement did not thrive. More settlers, of a worse kind, came, and no order could be kept. The only able man was John Smith, who had led a life of strange adventure all over Europe. He fell into the hands of a powerful Red Indian chief, and was on the point of being put to death. But the chief's young daughter, named Pocohontas, moved with pity, threw herself on his body to save him, and her father granted her his life.

Smith was made president; he overcame the Indians, and introduced some order into the settlement. Unfortunately he was injured by an explosion of gunpowder, and had to return to England to be healed. Things now became worse again; numbers died; and the survivors were just about to abandon the settlement and go off to Newfoundland, when a new governor with full authority from England arrived, bringing stores and more settlers of a better class. From this second start Virginia began to go ahead. The settlers began to till the soil, and especially to grow tobacco, which proved very profitable, and is now an important product of Virginia.

By the end of the reign the population was two thousand. The neighbouring Indians tried to surprise the settlement, and in revenge the settlers hunted them down with the savage cruelty with which white men in those days usually treated natives. Pocohontas herself had been captured some time before; she became a Christian, and married a settler, who took her with him to England. She was an object of great interest in London, but unfortunately died there at the age of twenty-two.

Ireland. The Plantation of Ulster, 1607.—In Ireland the

native Earl of Tyrone, who had rebelled at the end of Elizabeth's reign, was still regarded with suspicion by the English. All he did was observed by spies, to find him out in some new treason. He himself complained that he could not "drink a full carouse of sack but the State in a few hours was advertised thereof.' At last in 1607, whether he had been really conspiring or not, he heard that he was to be arrested, and fled abroad with another native earl. They finally settled at Rome, and died there broken-hearted exiles. Their lands, which made up nearly all Ulster, were given to English and Scottish Protestant settlers, and many small native landowners were driven out to other parts. The chief town, Derry, with other lands, was granted to the citizens of London, and henceforth was called Londonderry. This "Ulster settlement" was the "Protestant garrison" of Ireland; it did not fail like the settlements of Mary and Elizabeth. The settlers were energetic workers, and ever since Ulster has been the most prosperous part of Ireland. But the settlement was cruel and unfair to the native Irish, who have never forgiven it, and it is still one of the difficulties between England and Ireland.

James I. and the Commons.—During these years the quarrel had been growing up between James and the Commons. In the second session, in granting money, they stated their "grievances." This annoyed James. "Why," he said, "must I, who have to govern the country, always come to Parliament when I want money?" In the third session the Commons annoyed him more by rejecting his plan of uniting the Parliaments of England and Scotland. The next thing was that James increased some of the "Tonnage and Poundage" duties (the Customs duties levied on foreign merchandise), a thing which the Tudors had occasionally done; so James had some right on his side. A London merchant refused to pay the increased duty, and appealed to the Law Courts, but the judges decided against him. As the judges were appointed by the King

and could be dismissed by him, they naturally were inclined to take his side; in fact, later on in the reign the Chief Justice was dismissed for his continued opposition to the King. The Commons took up the quarrel, and James said that they had nothing to do with the Customs. Cecil, or the Earl of Salisbury, as he now was, tried to come to an agreement with the Commons; but it broke down; and in 1611 James angrily dissolved Parliament. Thus began the dispute which in the end cost the Stuart line their throne.

Deaths of Cecil and Prince Henry, 1612.—The next year the Earl of Salisbury died, and a fever carried off Prince Henry at the age of nineteen. These two deaths were a great misfortune. For Salisbury had served under Elizabeth, and had some influence over James, and Prince Henry already showed promise of being a very different king to his father. He was a friend of Raleigh, and said once, "I wonder my father keeps the greatest Englishman in prison." He was also a strong Protestant, and disliked a Roman Catholic marriage which his father proposed for him. Had he lived to reign, instead of his brother Charles, the fate of the Stuarts might have been different.

James's Favourites. The Addled Parliament.—From this time James did not give his confidence to any of his regular ministers. He had favourites, first a handsome but worthless young Scot, whom he made an earl, and, after him, a handsome Englishman named George Villiers. He became Lord High Admiral, and was made Earl, and then Duke of Buckingham. In course of time James allowed him almost to rule the country in his name, and his bad statesmanship did great harm.

Two years after the death of Cecil, James tried a second Parliament. But the old disputes began again at once, and he dissolved it before a single measure was passed. So people compared it to an addled egg, which produces no chicken, and called it the "Addled Parliament."

For seven years James managed to govern without a Parliament. The reason why he at last summoned one

arose, as you will see, out of the marriage of the Princess Elizabeth.

Marriage of the Princess Elizabeth.—The year before the Addled Parliament, the Princess, at the age of seventeen, was married to a German Protestant prince called the "Elector Palatine"; his territory, which is no longer a separate state, was mainly on the Rhine, with the famous city of Heidelberg as capital; it is shown on the map on p. 700. The Queen did not like her daughter marrying a mere Elector, but the marriage was very popular in England and among the Protestants of Europe. A hundred years later it had a result which James never expected; for it is the origin of our present royal line, which then took the place of the Stuarts.

The Spanish Marriage project and Execution of Sir Walter Raleigh, 1618.—James spoilt the effect of this marriage by planning to marry Prince Charles to the daughter of the King of Spain. This was, of course, very unpopular, especially as James did not put in force the laws against the Roman Catholics. It happened also that Sir Walter Raleigh, whose mind was still full of the El Dorado up the River Orinoco, was at this time trying to obtain his release in order to find a gold-mine in those parts. James did not want any trouble with Spain, which might prevent the marriage. But Raleigh declared that there were no Spanish settlements on the Orinoco. So James let him go in 1616, on the distinct understanding that there should be no fighting. Unfortunately there was a small settlement on the Orinoco, which was attacked and taken by a force under Raleigh's son, who was killed, and another officer. Raleigh returned home unsuccessful in 1618. The Spanish ambassador demanded his head, and James had him executed on his old sentence. Thus perished the last of the Elizabethan explorers, a victim to James's friendship for Spain.

The "Winter King" and outbreak of the Thirty Years' War in Germany, 1618.—The same year religious troubles

began again in Germany. The Protestants of Bohemia, being oppressed, revolted against the Emperor who was their King, and next year, on his death, they offered the throne to the Elector Palatine. He accepted it, and Elizabeth thus became a Queen. He was soon driven out by the new Emperor, and, in consequence, lost his own

Sir Walter Raleigh.

dominions also. Having reigned only a few months in the winter, he was called the "Winter King." Thus began a great religious war, known as the Thirty Years' War from the time it lasted, which caused terrible harm and woe to Germany. The "Winter Queen" hoped her father would help her; and the English were eager for war. But James did not want to be dragged into a religious war; he hoped that he might induce the King of Spain to do some-

thing for the Elector, for the sake of the marriage. Many English and Scots, however, went over to Germany, and fought on the Protestant side.

James's third Parliament, 1621.—James hoped he might

The Princess Elizabeth, the "Winter Queen" of Bohemia; the Stuart ancestress of our present royal line.

frighten the King of Spain by showing how eager the English were for war. So in 1621 he summoned a third Parliament. The Commons readily granted money for war, but they also renewed their old complaints. And they went so far as to bring the Chancellor, the famous writer and philosopher, Sir Francis Bacon, Lord Verulam,

to trial for taking bribes as judge. Bribery seems to have been not uncommon in those days; but the Chancellor was convicted, deprived of his office, and fined. Finally the Commons petitioned James to declare war, marry Prince Charles to a Protestant, and put in force the laws against Roman Catholics. If James could have seen into the future he would have taken the Commons' advice about a Protestant marriage; as it was, he replied that the Commons had no right to discuss such matters. The Commons passed a resolution that freedom of speech was an ancient right of Englishmen. James angrily tore the page out of the Journal of the Commons, imprisoned five leading members, and dissolved Parliament.

Prince Charles's Journey to Spain. The French Marriage.—The Duke of Buckingham now proposed that he and Prince Charles should go to Spain, and discuss matters with the King. They went under assumed names; but it was known who they were. The King of Spain would do nothing for the Elector Palatine, and Buckingham's free manners offended the haughty Spanish grandees. He came back resolved on war with Spain; and he and the Prince were received with great joy by the people on their return. A new Parliament was summoned, and the Commons again voted money. Instead of the Spanish marriage, the Duke of Buckingham arranged a French marriage in the hope of getting French help against the Emperor and Spain. Prince Charles was to marry Henrietta Maria, sister of the King, Louis XIII. Their father, Henry IV., fortunately for the enemies of France, had been murdered by a religious fanatic some years before. Parliament agreed to the marriage on condition that no promises should be made of better treatment for Roman Catholics; but the condition was deliberately broken.

A force of twelve thousand men was collected, and sent to the Netherlands. They were mostly vagrants and criminals, ill-trained and ill-equipped, and during the

James I. towards the end of his reign, with a view of London.

Notice the Bridge with the houses on it, and the heads of criminals over the gateway. The church this side of the river is the present Southwark Cathedral; on the other side is old St. Paul's.

winter they either died of disease or deserted. The nation put all the blame of the failure on the Duke of Buckingham. The real reason was that there was no standing army. In the following spring (1625) James I. died at the age of fifty-eight, little regretted by his subjects, who contrasted the position now held by England with what it had been on his accession. His quarrel with the Commons he left to his son and successor, Charles I. His only other surviving child was the unfortunate Elizabeth, the Winter Queen, wife of a King without a kingdom.

Colonisation of New England. The Pilgrim Fathers, 1620.—During the latter years of the reign a fresh settlement had been made in America, very different from Virginia. John Smith, after his injury was cured, had explored the coast five hundred miles north of Virginia, and called it "New England." At first the attempts to settle there were failures. There was, however, in Holland a little band of Independents, farmers who had fled from Lincolnshire and the neighbourhood. They did not like living among foreigners, and, after some years, some of them resolved to found a settlement in New England. Friendly merchants in England provided them with two ships and money. Amid prayers and weeping they bade farewell to their friends and started in 1620. One of the captains lost heart, and said his ship could not stand the voyage. So they put into Plymouth, where all—a hundred men, women, and children—embarked on the other ship, which was called the *Mayflower*.

After a nine weeks' stormy voyage the "Pilgrim Fathers," as they were called, reached the New England coast. It was now December, and terrible were their hardships in that northern region. At last they fixed on a spot a little south of the present city of Boston, built a few huts, and called the place Plymouth from their port of departure. During the winter four-fifths of the settlers died. The survivors struggled on resolutely; and the few Indians in the neighbourhood were friendly. In the spring

they began to till the soil; they had no dreams of gold like the Virginians. But it was three years before they had a crop to reap. Gradually more Puritans came out, and New England steadily grew. Thus began our American colonies with two little settlements, of Puritan farmers in the north and gentlemen planters in the south.

The French and Dutch in North America. Canada and New Netherlands.—The English were not to have North America to themselves; the French and Dutch were also active there. During the last century French and Spanish adventurers had explored the St. Lawrence in a vain search for gold, but no permanent settlement was made. The river was called the St. Lawrence, because it was discovered on that saint's day; and the land was called Canada, probably from a native word meaning village, which a Frenchman thought was the name of the country. At last, the year after the starting of Virginia, a French explorer, named Champlain, founded a settlement at Quebec, on the north bank of the St. Lawrence; a French company was formed, and Canada was fairly started.

Then, just before the end of James's reign, the energetic Dutch settled on the River Hudson, midway between New England and Virginia. They called their settlement New Netherlands, and its capital New Amsterdam. It afterwards became New York, as you will read.

Other British Settlements. Nova Scotia, Newfoundland, and the West Indies.—The Scots also wanted to found a settlement, and James, towards the end of his reign, gave them a charter to start a New Scotland, or in Latin "Nova Scotia," north of New England. The French had made a settlement there also; this was destroyed by the Virginians, but a few years later was restored to France. Another attempt was also made to reoccupy Newfoundland, which was regularly visited in the summer by French and English cod fishers, but it was given up in the next reign owing to the severe climate and French attacks. Nova Scotia and Newfoundland

remained for a long time a bone of contention between France and England. French and English also began to settle in some of the West Indian islands which had been neglected by the Spaniards, and the Virginians occupied the Bermudas in the Atlantic.

The East India Company in India.—In the East, too, things had been happening. The East India Company, which you were told traded at this time with the Spice Islands, found great opposition there from the Dutch. So they began to think of trading with India in spite of the Portuguese. The captain of one of their ships was given a letter from James to the "Mogul," or emperor, who reigned at Delhi. This time the Portuguese prevented their obtaining leave to trade. But four years later, in 1613, the English Company beat the Portuguese in a sea fight; whereupon the Mogul gave them leave to have a "factory" at Surat, a great Indian port on the west coast. Such was the small beginning of our Indian Empire. In the Spice Islands the Company gave up their struggle with the Dutch; for James did not support them, and at the end of the reign the Dutch killed a number of English traders.

Thus we had a trade dispute with the Dutch in the East, and settlement disputes with France in America. France and Holland were on our side against Spain; but now our Spanish quarrel was dying out. As you will read, we first fought out our quarrel with the Dutch; then came our wars with France, which were mixed up with European matters.

SUMMARY.

Union of English and Scottish crowns—James I.'s early reign in Scotland—His character and belief in "Divine Right"—How Divine Right affected the nation and the Church—The Puritans—Plots and imprisonment of Sir Walter Raleigh—Peace with Spain—Hampton Court Conference—The Gunpowder Plot—Second colonisation of Virginia—Plantation of Ulster—Beginning of the conflict between King and Parliament—Marriage

of the Princess Elizabeth to the Elector Palatine—Proposed marriage of Prince Charles to a Spanish princess—Raleigh's "El Dorado" expedition and his execution—The "Winter King" and beginning of the Thirty Years' War—James's third Parliament—End of the Spanish marriage; Prince Charles betrothed to Henrietta Maria of France—England joins in the war without success—Colonisation; the "Pilgrim Fathers" in New England—Rivalry with French and Dutch—The East India Company starts trading in India.

DATES.

1605. Gunpowder Plot.
1607. Foundation of Virginia.
1620. The Pilgrim Fathers.

Royal Arms of the Stuarts.

The lions of England with the lilies of France are in two quarters; the other two are the single lion of Scotland and the harp of Ireland, which now appears for the first time.

CHAPTER XL

Charles I., 1625-1649

(I)

King and Parliament

Character of Charles I. His difficulties at his Accession.—Charles I. was twenty-four years of age when he began his ill-starred reign. Both he and his sister Elizabeth resembled their grandmother, Mary, Queen of Scots, rather than their father; they had all the Stuart beauty and charm which were lacking in James. Charles I. was every inch a King in appearance, stately and courteous; without pretending to the learning of his father, he was fond of literature and art. He kept up a splendid Court till his troubles began; but even the Puritans admitted that it was more virtuous than his father's, and the entertainments were tasteful and artistic.

Unfortunately for him, Charles inherited his father's quarrel with Parliament. England, too, was at war, and had just had a failure, for which Buckingham, his chief minister and friend, was blamed. Thirdly, Henrietta Maria, whom Charles married soon after his accession, had her Romish services in London, which English Roman Catholics were permitted to attend; while the Church was, just at this time, becoming still more High Church. So the Puritans were girding up their loins for the conflict, believing that Popery was really close at hand. Thus Charles had difficulties that might have daunted even Elizabeth. And Charles was no statesman; he held

his father's views of kingship; that and his love for the Church were the only things in which he resembled him.

The Commons refuse the Customs for more than one year. Buckingham's failures at Cadiz and Rochelle.—Charles promised to help the Winter King at least with money. But in his first Parliament the Commons at once showed their temper. Contrary to usual custom, they granted the Customs for one year only, owing to the dispute about

The Duke of Buckingham and his family.

them in the last reign. They attacked the Church doctrines, and insisted on the dismissal of Buckingham. So Charles dissolved Parliament. Nothing could be done in Germany. Buckingham tried to recover his reputation by the old plan of attacking Cadiz, but he only had a second failure. A second Parliament the next year actually impeached Buckingham, so it too was dissolved.

Charles, like his father, now got money illegally. He continued levying the Customs, which he considered his

right, and raised money by forced loans. There was great indignation in London and the south-eastern counties. Merchants ceased for a time to import goods; gentlemen refused to pay the forced loan, and no less than eighty were imprisoned.

As if things were not bad enough, the Duke of Buckingham got into a quarrel with Cardinal Richelieu, the great minister of Louis XIII. of France, who was himself a feeble King, very unlike his father, Henry IV. Richelieu had trouble with the Huguenots, and was besieging them in their stronghold, Rochelle, on the Bay of Biscay. The Duke thought it might please the Puritans if he helped the Huguenots. So he sailed with an expedition to Rochelle, but failed hopelessly. This was the third failure in three years, and it showed how feeble England was without a proper army.

Third Parliament. The Petition of Right, 1628.—The disaster had to be retrieved, so in the spring of 1628 Charles summoned his third Parliament. He tried to gain popularity by releasing the imprisoned gentlemen; but the Commons were as determined as ever. Their leaders were John Pym, a lawyer, who had been imprisoned by James I.; Sir John Eliot and John Hampden, landowners of Cornwall and Buckinghamshire, both of whom had been imprisoned. Hampden's cousin, Oliver Cromwell of Huntingdonshire, now sat for the first time, but he was not yet a leader. Charles in his speech to Parliament demanded money almost threateningly to help the Protestants of Germany. But the Commons would only vote the money if Charles accepted what they called a "Petition of Right." This declared that no one should be compelled to pay loans, benevolences, or taxes without the consent of Parliament; and that no one should be imprisoned without due cause. The Lords, many of whom hated the Duke of Buckingham, passed the Petition of Right. Charles, after first giving an evasive answer, accepted it; there were great popular rejoicings, with bonfires; and the Commons

voted the money. They then began to attack the Duke, and the old dispute arose whether the Customs were "taxes." So in June Charles adjourned Parliament till the next January.

Murder of Buckingham. Scene at Dissolution of the third Parliament.—So great was the hatred of the Duke of Buckingham that his life was openly threatened. However, he went to Portsmouth to prepare a second expedition to Rochelle; there he was stabbed to death by a man who had served as an officer in the last expedition. The people rejoiced so openly in the crime that Charles was more angry than ever. When Parliament met again he determined to dissolve it. The Commons guessed what he was going to do, and Sir John Eliot drew up a protest, declaring that any one who suggested to the King to levy Customs, or who paid them, or brought forward new doctrines in religion, was an enemy of the country. The Speaker said he had orders from the King to adjourn the House at once, and refused to read the protest. An extraordinary scene followed. Some members locked the doors of the House to prevent interruption. Two of them held the Speaker in his chair by force, while the protest was read and voted amid the wildest excitement. Then the doors were opened, just as the King's guard were going to break them in, and the members rushed out. Charles dissolved Parliament, and brought the leaders in the disturbance to trial. Some of them submitted; Eliot and others refused to answer questions, declaring that the privilege of Parliament was above law. They were fined; and Eliot and two others, refusing to pay, were kept in the Tower. Eliot, who was in feeble health, died there three years later, after vainly appealing for milder treatment. The other two remained in prison for ten years.

Charles makes Peace. Gustavus Adolphus the Protestant Champion.—There could be no more Parliaments for Charles. He must get on as well as he could without them, and give up all thoughts of war. So peace was made with

France and Spain, and the Winter King and the Protestants were left to their fate. The Winter King soon died; the Winter Queen was living in Holland with her children, where she was also known as the "Queen of Hearts" from her charm and beauty. You will hear later of two of her children. The Huguenots had already submitted. The Protestants of Germany now found a champion in the famous Gustavus Adolphus, King of Sweden, the ablest general of the day. He won two great victories; and, though he was killed in the second in 1632, the Swedes continued the war. Richelieu too, after suppressing the Protestants in France, came to the aid of the Protestants of Germany; for he really thought more of fighting the Emperor and Spain than of religion.

Sir Thomas Wentworth.—Charles's chief adviser now was Sir Thomas Wentworth, a member of Parliament of great ability. Wentworth had disliked the Duke of Buckingham, and for that reason had taken sides against the King. He had been imprisoned for refusing the forced loan, and had voted for the Petition of Right, though he thought it went too far. But he disliked the Puritans, and after Buckingham's murder came over to the King's side, and was made a peer. His opinion now was that the only chance of good government was in the royal power. His motto was "Thorough," which meant thoroughly crushing all opposition. A few years later Charles set him over Ireland. There he "thoroughly" kept both Protestants and Roman Catholics in order, and at the same time by his wise measures made Ireland prosperous.

The Eleven Years' Tyranny. The Star Chamber.—For eleven years Charles governed without a Parliament. The nation as a whole remained quiet. In fact, it is said to have been a time of great prosperity and increasing trade. Pym and Hampden kept their party together by private meetings; they were quietly biding their time till another Parliament should meet. The discontent was chiefly shown in speeches and writings. This was suppressed by the

King's Council, which summoned offenders before it, and fined and imprisoned them, put them in the pillory, and sometimes had their ears cut off. This was really illegal, as such offenders ought to have been tried before a jury. But during Tudor times the Council had used such powers as necessary for keeping order, but generally used them against the nobles; it never, even now, put persons to death. When the Council acted thus as a court of law it met in a room called the "Star Chamber," because the ceiling was painted with stars. So the Court was known as the Star Chamber.

Archbishop Laud. Persecution of Puritans.—At the same time the Puritans suffered from religious persecution. After the Hampton Court Conference those who remained in the Church had been left to do much as they liked. Consequently the services in many churches were not properly conducted. At this time the chief High Churchman was Laud, whom Charles made Bishop of London and then Archbishop of Canterbury. He was a devout and courageous man, and set himself to put down the irregularities, making visitations throughout his province. Laud certainly did much good, but he was narrow-minded, and tried to stamp out Puritanism altogether. He was a friend of Wentworth, and adopted his plan of Thorough in the Church. He used a Court set up by Queen Elizabeth to regulate the Church, called the Court of High Commission. The Puritans abused Laud as a Papist, and many were punished by the Star Chamber. So these two Courts were hated by the Puritans as instruments of Charles's tyranny.

Many Puritans followed the example of the Pilgrim Fathers, and went off to America, settling mostly in Massachusetts Bay, north of Plymouth. Their chief settlement was called Boston, from Boston in Lincolnshire, whence many of them came. It is now one of the chief towns in the United States. At the same time a Roman Catholic colony was started in the northern part of

Virginia, and called Maryland, after the Queen, Henrietta Maria.

Ship Money. Hampden's Trial.—To get money Charles had the Customs, which he continued to levy on his own authority; the fines from the Star Chamber, which often amounted to thousands of pounds; and fines from old laws which had really fallen into disuse, such as the Forest Laws. But after a few years he found it necessary to build more warships, owing to the strength of the French and Dutch navies. For this he found another way of getting money. From old days the seaports had to contribute ships in time of war. Armed merchant-ships were now of little use, but the seaports could give money instead. This Charles ordered them to do; and, though London protested, the money was paid. Ships were built; and a fleet put to sea, which showed other nations the power of England. Then Charles ordered the inland counties also to contribute "ship money"; it was, he said, for their good that the coasts were protected. But he did not intend to use this money only for the fleet; he would thus be able, as Wentworth wrote to him, to make himself quite independent of Parliament. The tax was generally paid with ill-will. But when ship money was levied a second time, John Hampden refused the twenty shillings due on his land in Buckinghamshire. The case was tried before twelve judges, from the end of 1637 to the summer of 1638, when the majority decided in the King's favour. The Chief Justice actually laid down that the King had a right to his subjects' money. So Hampden had to pay ship money, but he was a hero in the eyes of the people for his resistance.

Religious Rebellion in Scotland, 1638.—How long Charles could have struggled on with his illegal government, if he had had only England to deal with, it is hard to say. But soon after the ship-money trial his plans were upset by a rebellion in Scotland. Archbishop Laud, not content with persecuting the Puritans in England, turned his attention to Scotland, and ordered the English Prayer-

Book to be used there. In the summer of 1637 the English service was read in Edinburgh. As might have been expected, there was a great uproar, and a woman named Jennie Geddes is said to have thrown a stool at the clergyman. Then the Scots began to sign a "Covenant" to preserve their Presbyterian form of worship. Charles tried to arrange matters, but the Assembly made matters worse by abolishing the Bishops and re-establishing Presbyterianism. Wentworth wrote from Ireland, advising that the Scots should be crushed. So Charles invaded Scotland with the militia of the north. But he dared not fight with the ill-trained militia, who had no heart in the war, against the Scots, who were full of enthusiasm, and led by officers who had fought in Germany.

Wentworth came over from Ireland, and advised the summoning of Parliament to get money for a regular army, thinking that patriotism would make the Commons grant it. But the Commons sympathised with the Scots, and, under the leadership of Pym, at once started the old grievances.

So, in the spring of 1640, Charles dissolved the Parliament after it had sat only three weeks. It was known as the "Short Parliament." Wentworth, who had been made Earl of Strafford, tried his system of Thorough. Money was obtained by a fresh levy of ship money and a forced loan. Four merchants of London refused this and were imprisoned. An army was raised, but it was as bad as the militia. The Scots marched into England, beat one division on the Tyne, and advanced into Yorkshire. So Charles had no course but to summon another Parliament.

The Meeting of the Long Parliament, November 1640. Execution of the Earl of Strafford, 1641.—On November 3, 1640, met the "Long Parliament," which overthrew the tyranny of Charles. It was so called because it was not legally dissolved till 1660, although, as you will see, it did not sit all the time; in fact, its life was full of strange events and changes of fortune. Charles I. met Parliament a beaten man; he had fought for a high stake

and lost. The Earl of Strafford, however, would not give in; he advised the impeachment of Pym and his friends for treasonable correspondence with the Scots. The Parliament party were very much afraid of the Earl of Strafford, "Black Tom" as he was nicknamed. It was believed that he was going to bring over an Irish army to

The Earl of Strafford, after Vandyck.
Notice that he does not follow the fashion of long hair.

crush the liberties of England. So Pym attacked him first. As the head of the Commons, he came into the House of Lords and impeached him of treason. The Earl of Strafford strode haughtily into the House, but was angrily ordered by the Peers to withdraw. He was arrested, and sent to the Tower. Many of the King's ministers fled to Holland in terror, including the Chief Justice who had presided in Hampden's case. Archbishop Laud, who was nearly

seventy years of age, refused to fly, and was also impeached and sent to the Tower.

In March 1641 the Earl of Strafford's trial began in Westminster Hall. He defended himself with great skill and courage. His unconstitutional acts in Ireland were brought against him; but it was difficult to prove treason legally, for treason means an act against the King, not against the nation. Even when evidence was given that he had suggested to the King to use Irish troops against "this nation," he replied that "this nation" was Scotland. The Commons had expected the Lords to condemn the Earl of Strafford offhand. When the trial had lasted over a fortnight they became angry, especially as there were rumours of a plot among the officers of the army, which was still in Yorkshire, to bring it down against Parliament and release the Earl. So the Commons changed their attack. By an old custom, as you have read, people could be put to death without trial by an Act of Parliament called an "Act of Attainder."

Such a Bill was now brought in, though at first even Pym and Hampden disliked it as unfair. After much debate it passed the Commons, and it even passed the Lords by a small majority; but more than half did not vote at all. It had now to be accepted by the King. That night the London mob assembled round the palace of Whitehall, and shouted furiously for the Bill. The Queen, who had all through been urging Charles on against Parliament, was alarmed, and advised him to give in; and after much hesitation he assented next evening to the death of his own minister. The Earl of Strafford had written to the King advising him to give his assent, as the only chance of a reconciliation with Parliament. But he hardly expected his advice to be taken, for when he heard his fate he quoted the verse of the psalm, "Put not your trust in princes or in any child of man." Three days later, on May 12, he was executed.

The "Tyranny" ended. Growth of a Royalist Party in

the Commons.—Besides the attack on the Earl of Strafford, the Commons were engaged in depriving the King of the means of tyranny. The Star Chamber and the High Commission Court were abolished; ship money and the levying of Customs without the consent of Parliament were declared illegal. To all this Charles had to agree, and also to a Bill declaring that Parliament should not be dissolved without its own consent. This was depriving the King of his undoubted right, and setting Parliament above him, but at the time it seemed necessary. Parliament then raised money to pay the Scots and the army in the north; and the two armies were disbanded.

By the end of the summer Pym and his followers had thus executed their great enemy and established the power of the Commons. Pym had been supported by almost the whole House, and was so powerful that he was called "King Pym." Even Strafford's execution had only been opposed by fifty-nine members. But in religious matters there had been differences of opinion. There was a Church party, led by Edward Hyde, a lawyer, of whom you will hear more later, and Viscount Falkland, who sat in the Commons as his title was Scottish. Falkland, a man of noble character, was anxious for a peaceful settlement of the troubles. He had voted for Strafford's death, and Hyde had not voted against it. This party had opposed the Puritans when they attacked the Bishops, and prevented a Bill being passed abolishing them. Other moderate members, thinking that enough had been done against the King, were coming over to their side. So that a strong Royalist party was now growing up.

Unfortunately Charles's advisers, especially the Queen, were driving him to violent courses. The Queen hoped to get help from her brother, Louis XIII. of France, and from the Prince of Orange, the son of Maurice; she married her daughter Mary, only twelve years old, to the Prince. But her hopes of foreign aid were disappointed. Charles also thought he might get help from Scotland and the

Roman Catholics of Ireland. He went up to Scotland in August, granted the Scots all their demands, and hoped he had made them friendly to him.

Rebellion in Ireland. Massacre of Protestants. The Grand Remonstrance.—While Charles was in Scotland a rising occurred in Ireland which, however, did him more harm than good. It was a rising of the native Roman Catholics only, who had long resented the plantation of Ulster. Freed from the stern rule of the Earl of Strafford, they suddenly fell upon the Protestant settlers, and murdered thousands of them—men, women, and children—with horrible savagery. It was their revenge for the cruelties of Elizabeth's reign. The English demanded that an army of vengeance should be raised.

The Parliament leaders were in a difficulty. They dare not raise an army unless they had complete control of it, from fear that Charles might use it against them. They were very suspicious of Charles's proceedings in Scotland, and were alarmed at the growth of the Royalist party. They even thought he had a hand in the Irish rebellion, for the rebels undoubtedly used his name. So they brought forward a "Grand Remonstrance," which recounted in two hundred clauses all Charles's illegal actions. So heated was the debate that the members were on the point of drawing their swords on one another, but Hampden succeeded in calming the angry passions. In the end the Remonstrance was carried by a majority of only eleven.

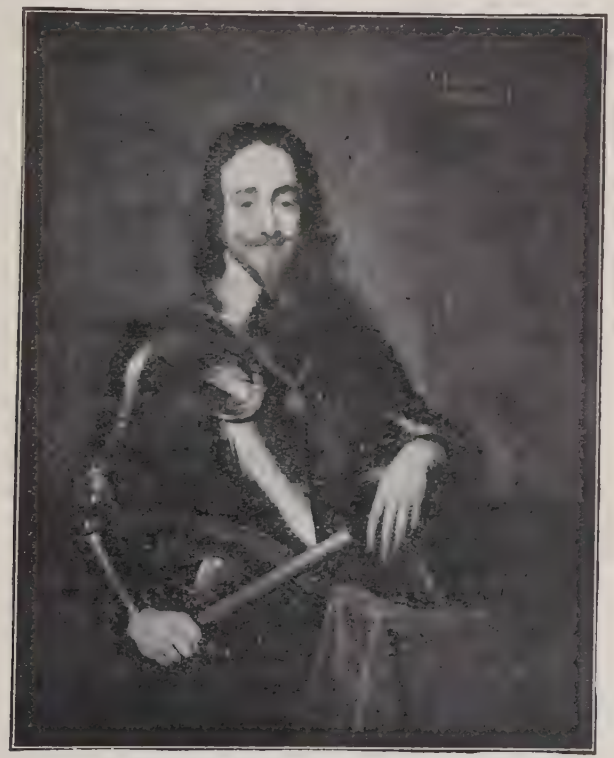
Cavaliers and Roundheads.—Two days later Charles arrived from Scotland. He might perhaps, had he tried, have now won a majority of the Commons to his side. Instead he collected at Whitehall, as a sort of extra bodyguard, a number of disbanded officers from the late army and other gentlemen. They were a swaggering, dissolute set, and had frequent brawls with the London apprentices, ever ready for a disturbance. They called the apprentices "Roundheads" because, unlike gentlemen, they cut their hair short; and the apprentices called them

"Cavaliers," which seems to have meant a swaggering soldier. "Cavaliero" is the Spanish of the French chevalier, a knight. That was the beginning of the two party names. The Commons were greatly alarmed, fearing that force would be used against them. Charles promised that no harm should come to them. He even made Falkland and some of his friends ministers. But at the very time he was preparing a blow.

Charles tries to arrest the five Members, 1642. January.— Only a few days later, at the beginning of 1642, he impeached Pym, Hampden, three other members of the Commons, and one peer of treason, for corresponding with the Scottish rebels. The next day, surrounded by his guard and four hundred "Cavaliers," he started in his coach from Whitehall to the House of Commons to arrest them himself. Bidding his followers stay outside in Westminster Hall, Charles entered the House of Commons, and walked up the floor. The Speaker left the chair; and the King, standing by it, looked in vain among the rows of members, all standing silent, for his five victims. They had private warning, and had just time to escape in boats by the river to the city. Charles asked the Speaker where they were, but he begged on bended knee to be excused from replying. "I have, sir," he said, "neither eyes to see nor tongue to speak in this place, but as the House is pleased to direct me." Charles made a short speech, saying that, as the "birds had flown," they must be surrendered, and promising that they should have a fair trial. As he left the chamber some members cried out "Privilege." For it was, and still is, one of the special rights, or "privileges," of Parliament that no member should be arrested in the building.

That night there was wild excitement in the city; men assembled under arms to protect the five members. The next day Charles went without his Cavaliers to the Guildhall, hoping that the City Council would give up the members. But he was coldly received, and on his return

was again assailed with cries of "Privilege of Parliament." A week later Charles left Whitehall for Hampton Court, never to return except as a prisoner. The next day the five members were triumphantly escorted back to Westminster.



Charles I.

The King goes to York. The Gates of Hull closed against him, April.—By his rash and foolish act Charles ruined his chance of winning a majority of the Commons to his side. His own supporters were dismayed. Pym was

all-powerful. The Bishops were at last turned out of the House of Lords. The Militia Bill was passed by both Houses. Charles, of course, refused his assent. He sent the Queen from Dover to Holland with the crown jewels to buy arms and ammunition, and then went north and fixed his Court at York. With "King Pym" at Westminster, and King Charles at York, civil war was coming very near. Royalist peers and commoners, finding that they had to choose between the two, began to join Charles, however they might disapprove of his acts. With Pym at Westminster there remained about thirty peers and three hundred members of the Commons. Parliament continued to treat with the King, requesting him to return to London, and give them the control of the militia.

In April the first actual act of defiance occurred. The arms of the late army were stored at Hull. Charles went there to get them, and the governor, acting in accordance with the Militia Bill, closed the gates against him. Parliament at this called out the militia, and nominated the Earl of Essex, son of Queen Elizabeth's favourite, as "General of the King and Parliament," for they still pretended they were not opposing the King, but only his evil advisers. Charles replied by ordering levies on his authority; and people had to choose which side they would take.

The two Sides.—On the King's side was mainly the Church party, who either believed in "Divine Right," or had such respect for the King's office that they were angry at his treatment by Pym and his followers, and pleasure-loving men of the upper classes, who hated the strict Puritans as "canting hypocrites." Against him were the Puritans, who hated the Church as half Roman, and having begun the quarrel with the King had to carry it through. Both sides were fighting for what they thought right: the one for loyalty, the other for freedom. The strength of Parliament was chiefly in London, in Puritan gentry of the eastern and south-eastern counties, and in the ports such as Plymouth and Bristol. The King's

strength was in the south-west, in Wales, and the north. Many people kept out of the fray as much as they could, and hoped for a speedy end to the troubles.

Preparing for Civil War. Charles raises his Standard, August.—All through the spring and summer both sides were levying and training troops and collecting money. Hampden was made a colonel, and raised a regiment of infantry in Buckinghamshire. Cromwell was a captain, and raised a troop of sixty horsemen from the sturdy farmers of Huntingdonshire, strong Independents like himself. Both sides had officers who had fought abroad in the Thirty Years' War. Cromwell, who was now over forty, had never seen war, but he obtained instruction from one of the veterans. Charles's nephew Rupert, son of the "Winter Queen," came over to command his cavalry. He was only twenty-three, but had already won a reputation in the Thirty Years' War as a dashing cavalry officer.

In money Parliament was better off than the King, as their part of the country was the richer and more prosperous trading part, which they regularly taxed. The King had to trust to contributions of his supporters. On both sides people sent their silver plate; the women of London even gave their silver thimbles. Both Oxford and Cambridge were loyal, and sent their plate to the King. But Cambridgeshire was for the Parliament; and we read from a letter of the time that "one Mr. Cromwell, a Parliament man," was on the watch, and the escort, conveying the plate, had to turn back after passing Huntingdon. A few days later the energetic Mr. Cromwell came to Cambridge, and carried it all off, except that of his own college, Sidney Sussex.

At last, in August, Charles raised the royal standard at Nottingham. The Civil War had begun.

SUMMARY.

Charles's difficulties at his accession—Buckingham's failures in war, and his murder—The first three Parliaments; Customs refused for more than one year; hatred of Buckingham; Petition of Right; scene at dissolution of the third Parliament.

Charles's eleven years' rule without Parliament—Sir Thomas Wentworth; he goes to Ireland; his system of "Thorough"—Archbishop Laud and the Puritans—Ship money; Hampden's trial—The Covenant and rebellion in Scotland—Success of the Scots, and the summoning of the "Short" and "Long" Parliaments.

The Commons, led by Pym, overthrow Charles's tyranny; execution of the Earl of Strafford (Wentworth); Star Chamber and High Commission Court abolished; Ship money, etc., declared illegal Royalist Church party—Rebellion and massacre in Ireland—The Militia Bill and Grand Remonstrance—"Cavaliers" and "Roundheads"—Charles tries to arrest the five members—He goes to York—The gates of Hull closed against him—The two sides, and preparations for war—Charles raises the royal standard.

DATES.

1628. Petition of Right.
1640. Meeting of Long Parliament
1642. Civil War.

CHAPTER XLI

Charles I., 1625-1649

(II)

The Civil War

First Year of the War. Edgehill and the Advance against London, 1642.—"We all thought a single battle would decide it," wrote a Puritan divine afterwards. It was a great mistake. The great Civil War lasted nearly four years; then came a short second civil war, then a Scottish war; lastly, most unexpected event of all, the victorious army overthrew the Parliament as well as the King. At first the King had the better army. His cavalry, composed of loyal country gentlemen and their followers, and commanded by Prince Rupert, was more than a match for the Parliament's levies.

It was not till October that the first battle was fought. From Nottingham the King went to Shrewsbury, and mustered an army there to march on London and crush the Parliament. The Earl of Essex took the field against him; but he was a slow general, and let the King get past him. However, he came up with him when encamped on Edgehill, a steep range of hills west of Banbury in Oxfordshire. Charles came down from his strong position in order to be able to use his cavalry on the level ground. As he expected, his cavalry were victorious; but they pursued too far, and wasted time in plundering the enemy's baggage. Meanwhile Captain Cromwell rallied his troop and some others and fell upon some of the royal infantry, which he broke. When Rupert returned the chance of victory was gone, and the battle, after all the slaughter, was indecisive.

Charles after the battle marched on for London, but this time he let Essex get in front of him. Essex, reinforced by the London train-bands, took up a strong position at Turnham Green. But the Parliament was greatly alarmed, and began to treat with the King. At the same time London was being fortified, as so much of it now lay outside the old city walls. One large fort was built at Hyde Park Corner. Every one, even women, joined in the work; as a poet afterwards wrote:—

> "From ladies down to oyster-wenches
> Laboured like pioneers in trenches,
> Fell to their pickaxes and tools,
> And helped the men to dig like moles."

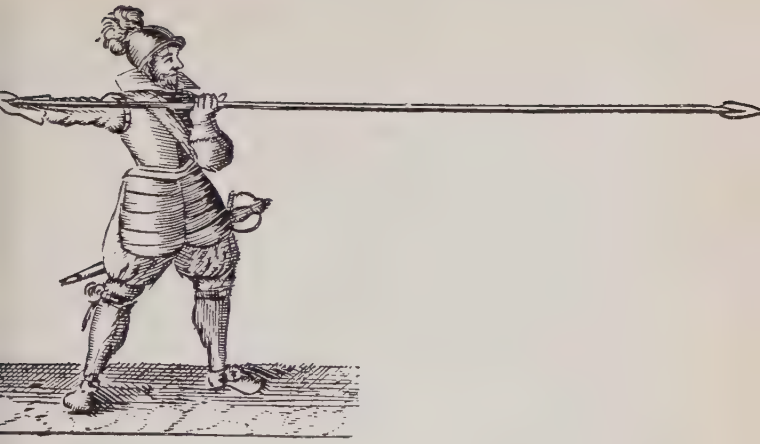
It was now that Milton wrote his sonnet, "When the assault was intended to the City," begging—

> "Captain or Colonel or Knight at arms
> Whose chance on these defenceless doors may seize,"

to spare his house, as the abode of a poet.

But the assault never took place. Charles found Essex's position too strong to attack, and went off to Oxford, where he had his headquarters and Court for the rest of the war. Oxford must have been a strange sight in these years, with its colleges crowded with soldiers, statesmen, and Court ladies.

Cromwell and his Ironsides.—The only man who had made a name in the campaign was Captain Cromwell. And after Edgehill he told his cousin Hampden that the Parliament troopers, "old decayed serving men and tapsters" from town inns, were of little use against the "gentlemen of honour and courage" under Rupert. "We must get men," he said, "of a spirit that is likely to go as far as gentlemen will go." The spirit that he meant was the spirit of religion, such as there was in his own troop. He was soon made a colonel, and increased his troop to a regiment. "Colonel Cromwell," an account of that time says, "has two thousand brave men, well disciplined; no



Pikeman.

Musketeer.
The hanging cord is the match.

From a drill-book of the time.

man swears but he pays his twelvepence; if he be drunk he is put in the stocks or worse. Happy were it if all the forces were thus disciplined." These men, fighting as they felt for God, were never beaten; they earned from Rupert himself the name of "Ironsides"; and it was they who won the Civil War.

Second Year. Royalist Victories, but no Advance on London, 1643.—All through the winter negotiations went on, but nothing came of them. By the next spring Charles had two more armies ready, in Yorkshire and Devonshire; and all three armies were to march at the same time to London and overthrow the Parliament. At first things went so well for the King that the Parliament again began to talk of peace. In Yorkshire the Earl of Newcastle beat the two Fairfaxes, father and son, who commanded the Parliament forces, and drove them into Hull. The Devonshire army advanced victoriously to Hampshire. And, while the two main armies were watching each other at Oxford and Reading, Rupert, who from time to time swooped down with his troopers on Essex's outposts, won a skirmish over Hampden, who was mortally wounded by a bullet.

But the advance on London never came off. The Royalist generals thought it safer to capture first the fortresses behind them. Newcastle besieged Hull; Rupert stormed and took Bristol; and then the King besieged Gloucester. Essex, reinforced by the London train-bands, marched to the help of Gloucester. The King abandoned the siege. At Newbury in Berkshire he tried to stop Essex on his return. But the train-bands stoutly withstood Rupert's troopers, and so made their way home. The battle of Newbury, fought in September, ended the fighting in the south. It is famous for the death of Falkland, who, broken-hearted by the Civil War, put an end to his troubles by charging single-handed into the hostile ranks.

In the eastern counties Cromwell had won more than one cavalry fight. At last he and the Earl of Manchester,

who was in chief command, went to the help of Hull, and drove Newcastle back to York.

Alliance of Parliament with the Scots. Death of Pym. Parliament and the Church.—Disappointed of their expected easy victory over the Royalists, the Parliament had turned for help to the Presbyterians of Scotland. All through the summer of this year they were negotiating with them. The Scots insisted on their taking the Covenant and introducing Presbyterianism into England. But Presbyterianism was not liked by the Independents, and was never fully introduced. This alliance with the Scots was the last work of Pym, who died at the end of the year at the age of fifty-nine. The loss of Pym and Hampden was a great blow to Parliament.

From the beginning of the war Parliament had been putting a stop to Church services as far as it could, and had abolished the Bishops by law. For instance, at the beginning of 1644 we find Cromwell writing as "your loving friend" to a clergyman at Ely, probably a canon, and requiring him to stop the choir service, "so unedifying and offensive," in the cathedral. As the letter had no effect, he appeared in the cathedral during service, with his hat on, followed by soldiers and a rabble of people, and turned out clergyman and congregation with the words, "Leave off your fooling and come down, sir!"

As in the Reformation days, images, pictures, church ornaments, and stained glass were destroyed. The soldiers desecrated the cathedrals, using them as barracks, and even stabling their horses in them. Very little stained glass older than these times survives in England. King's College, Cambridge, saved theirs by taking it out and burying it. Even Queen Eleanor's Crosses suffered as Popish emblems. Cheapside Cross, the last before Charing Cross, was pulled down in 1643 by order of the City Council, and old Charing Cross a few years later.

Poor old Archbishop Laud still lay in the Tower, but, as a final blow to the Church, he was executed at the be-

ginning of 1645. He had a long trial, but, like Strafford, he could not be convicted of treason, and was executed by order of Parliament.

Third Year. Marston Moor; Parliament wins the North, 1644.—Charles now got some troops from Ireland by secretly agreeing to the demands of the rebels, but on their arrival they were routed in Cheshire at the beginning of 1644. Then the Scots under the Earl of Leven and his son, David Leslie, marched into England, and with Manchester, Cromwell, now a general, and the Fairfaxes besieged the Earl of Newcastle in York. Charles sent Rupert to save York, and he was met by the besiegers at Marston Moor, a few miles to the west.

Rupert had heard of the fame of Cromwell's men, and asked before the battle if he was there. Cromwell soon showed his presence. He routed Rupert's horse. On the other wing the Cavaliers routed Sir Thomas Fairfax's horse, and as usual rode on to plunder. The Royalist infantry were getting the best of the fight, but Cromwell charged them with his victorious troopers, and utterly broke them before the Royalist cavalry returned. Rupert rode off the field with the survivors of his cavalry only. York surrendered, and the whole of the north was lost to the King. The glory of this belonged to Cromwell and his "Ironsides." In the south, however, Charles won his one great success, and Essex lost what reputation he still had. Essex, instead of fighting Charles, went off with half his army to try to conquer Devonshire and Cornwall. Charles, after beating the other half, went after him, and surrounded him on the Cornish coast by Fowey. Essex himself escaped by sea; his cavalry broke through, but all the infantry had to surrender. But Charles's victory had come too late. On marching back he was met at Newbury by Fairfax, Manchester, and Cromwell from the north. This second battle of Newbury was also indecisive owing, Cromwell angrily declared, to Manchester's faint-heartedness; and Charles reached Oxford.

Self-denying Ordinance and New Model Army.—There were angry discussions in Parliament in the autumn, in which Cromwell took the lead. To get rid of the incompetent generals, Manchester and Essex, what was called a "Self-denying Ordinance" was passed, which declared that no member of either House should hold a command. Then Sir Thomas Fairfax was made commander-in-chief; and afterwards, at his request, Cromwell, by a special exception, was allowed to remain in command of the cavalry. Further, as the present system of local levies was unsatisfactory, it was resolved to have as well a thoroughly well-disciplined, well-paid force of twenty thousand men, which included Cromwell's men. This was called the "New Model" army.

Fourth Year. The King defeated; Battle of Naseby, 1645.—In June, Charles met the New Model army under Fairfax and Cromwell near the village of Naseby in Northamptonshire. The battle went much as Marston Moor. Again one wing of cavalry on each side, under Rupert and Cromwell, was victorious; again the victorious Royalists rode on to plunder, while Cromwell led his victorious troopers to the aid of his infantry, and won the battle. Charles wanted to head a charge with the reserve, but a gentleman seized his reins, and turned his horse from the battlefield. Rupert on his return tried in vain to bring his men to another charge, and rode off with them after the King.

The Royalist infantry were all killed or captured, and all the King's cannons, twelve in number, and all his baggage were taken. Naseby was the decisive battle of the war, and is commemorated by a monument, which, however, is a mile from the actual field.

Montrose's Victories for the King in Scotland, 1644-1645.—Charles's only chance now was in Scotland, where the brave and chivalrous Marquis of Montrose had taken advantage of the absence of the Scottish army in England to raise the King's standard in the Highlands in the autumn of 1644. The Highland clans were still half independent

under their chiefs. War and plundering were their main occupations, for they were generally quarrelling among themselves. They still wore the kilt, and fought with the

Naseby Monument at the present day.

"claymore" and target, a heavy sword and round shield. By the Lowlanders they were regarded as cattle thieves and savages. As the head of the Campbells, the Earl of Argyll, was a leading Covenanter, and the Campbells were

hated by the other clans, Montrose easily raised a force for the King. Thus began the devotion of the Highlanders for the house of Stuart. In the autumn of 1644, and early in 1645, Montrose won several victories, and took Perth and Aberdeen.

End of the War. Charles I. surrenders to the Scottish Army, 1646.—Charles, with a force which he had collected in Wales, started to join Montrose, but was easily beaten at Chester. Montrose himself won more victories, took Glasgow, and tried to invade England. But his Highlanders were difficult to keep together, so he was overthrown by Leslie with part of the Scottish army from England, and fled abroad. Meanwhile Fairfax and Cromwell crushed the Royalists in the south-west, where the young Prince of Wales, now sixteen years of age, tried to hold Cornwall. Then they forced Rupert to surrender Bristol after a siege. About half a year more was occupied in crushing the remains of the Royalists in various parts of England, and in taking towns and castles.

Oxford was attacked by Fairfax in the spring of 1646, and Charles fled in disguise. After much wandering and many hardships he gave himself up in May to the Scots, who were then besieging Newark. He might, no doubt, have escaped abroad, but he disdained to leave his country and become a suppliant at the Court of France. Oxford surrendered in June. Rupert went off to France, and many of the Cavaliers went to Holland.

The Civil War was over. There were no executions or imprisonments. Those Royalists who submitted and remained in the country were heavily taxed and allowed no share in public affairs: that was all. In fact, in this Civil War we showed an example to Europe for humanity and moderation.

The Scots hand Charles over to Parliament, 1647.—The next thing was to arrange terms of peace. There were two difficulties in the way. One was that Charles would not abandon the Church, the other was that the victors

were beginning to quarrel. One of the last Royalist commanders to surrender remarked jestingly to his captors, "Well, gentlemen, you may now go and play, if you do not fall out among yourselves." The quarrel was between the Parliament, which was mainly Presbyterian, and the New Model army, which was mainly Independent. Charles knew this, and hoped that if he held out long enough he could play off one side against the other, and so come to his own again.

As Charles would not accept terms of peace, the Scots at the beginning of 1647 handed him over to Parliament, on receipt of half the pay owing to them and a promise of the rest, and went back home.

"Traitor Scot
Sold his King for a groat,"

as has been said. This, however, is not fair to the Scots. They were allies of the Parliament against the King, and had no reason to fight the Parliament on his behalf. And it was not the Parliament, as you will see, but the army, that executed the King.

Quarrel between the Parliament and the Army, which gets possession of Charles.—Charles was placed at Holmby House in Northamptonshire. The quarrel between Parliament and army now broke out, because Parliament wanted to disband the army, though much pay was still owing to it. The officers formed a council, but Fairfax, who was a Presbyterian, and Cromwell tried to compose the quarrel. London, which was Presbyterian, supported the Parliament, and the officers suspected that an attempt would be made to crush them. So they determined to get the King into their power.

One day in June a regiment of cavalry appeared before Holmby House under a cornet named Joyce, said to have been a tailor, who invited Charles to surrender to them. Charles was delighted at the turn in affairs. "Where is your commission?" he asked Joyce. "That is my

commission," he replied, pointing to the troopers. "It is written in fair and legible characters," said Charles, smiling. He readily rode off with him to the army, now in Cambridgeshire. With its royal prisoner, who was courteously treated, the army marched slowly to London. On its arrival it nearly had a fight with the train-bands; but at the last moment the train-bands flinched, and the army marched triumphant through the city. Charles was placed at Hampton Court, and was allowed some royal state. Cromwell and his son-in-law, General Ireton, made a strenuous effort to arrange terms with Charles; there was to be freedom of religion for all except Roman Catholics; even the Prayer-Book and Bishops were to be allowed. But the Presbyterians in England and Scotland were furious against the army; and Charles, hoping that they would join the Royalists in a rising, would not agree. The army knew this, and some were beginning to demand his execution, and Cromwell had difficulty to keep them in check.

The Second Civil War. Battle of Preston, 1648.—In November Charles escaped from the army to the Isle of Wight, where he was detained in custody by the governor of Carisbrooke Castle, under order of Parliament.

During the winter he won over a large party of the Scots. In the summer of 1648 there were scattered risings of Royalists and a few Presbyterians, and in August a Scottish army entered England by Carlisle. But, owing to the unskilfulness of their general, Cromwell, with a much smaller army, was able to surprise them on their line of march, and utterly defeated them near Preston. Soon after Fairfax finally crushed the rising in England. The Parliament considered this second Civil War as a rebellion; so some of the leaders were executed, and all the prisoners were shipped off to work in the sugar plantations of Barbados, where they were treated very cruelly.

The Army determine on the King's Death. "Pride's Purge."—Charles's scheming had all failed. For him, as

the cause of the fresh bloodshed, there was no mercy from the army. Before the fighting many were saying that "if the Lord bring us back in peace, we will call Charles Stuart, that man of blood, to an account for the blood he has shed." Cromwell was now convinced that only the execution of Charles could end the troubles. It was God's will, as had been shown by the late victories.

Parliament, on the other hand, was again negotiating with the King, who was, as usual, disputing every point. So the army took matters again into its hands, and marched to London. A Colonel Pride, once a drayman, with his own regiment of foot and a regiment of horse surrounded Parliament. As the members went in he arrested about forty Presbyterians, much to their indignation, and the next day frightened away over a hundred more. This was called "Pride's Purge," since he "purged" or cleansed the House of Commons from Presbyterianism. The Londoners were furious, but helpless; force had taken the place of law, and for the next ten years the army ruled England.

Charles had already been seized by the army; he was kept a strict prisoner, and treated without any respect. The Independent members of Parliament, about sixty in number, passed a law that it was treason to make war on Parliament, and then appointed a court to try "Charles Stuart, King of England," for treason. This was grossly illegal; for you cannot break a law before it has been made. Moreover, in England to this day a man can be tried for his life only by his peers, or equals; and a king has no equal. Charles never expected to be tried, though he did expect to be murdered, like Edward II. and Richard II. The few peers who still formed the House of Lords refused to agree to these proceedings; the Earl of Denbigh, who had fought for the Parliament and been nominated one of the judges, declared he would sooner be torn in pieces than take part in so infamous a transaction. However, the Commons went on as if the consent of the Lords did not matter.

The Trial of Charles I.—The trial of Charles I. took place in Westminster Hall in January 1649; in that same hall in May 1910 hundreds of thousands of sorrowing subjects paid their last respects to King Edward VII.

The picture of the trial shows the President, a lawyer named Bradshaw, in the centre, on a crimson chair, with two assistants on either side; in front of him is a desk with a crimson cushion. On either side sit the other members; all have their hats on. At the table, on which are the sword and mace, are the two Clerks of the Court. Charles I. faces the Court in a dock, sitting on a crimson chair. Near him are the prosecuting lawyers. Behind him and in the galleries are spectators. There is a strong force of soldiers. Most of the spectators were for Charles, and greeted him as he came and went with cries of "God save the King!" for which they suffered at the hands of the soldiers, who on their part shouted "Justice, execution!" The Court numbered a hundred and thirty members, including Cromwell, who is sitting at the back, and Fairfax. But little more than half ever attended. Fairfax, who would have saved the King if he could, only came the first day.

There was no trial in the real sense of the word. For Charles refused to acknowledge the Court at all, because the House of Commons by itself could not appoint one. He therefore refused to "plead"—that is, to say whether he was guilty or not guilty. He argued this point with great skill, and behaved all through with the greatest dignity.

On four separate days the Court sat, and the same argument took place. Here is an extract from the proceedings of the third day:—

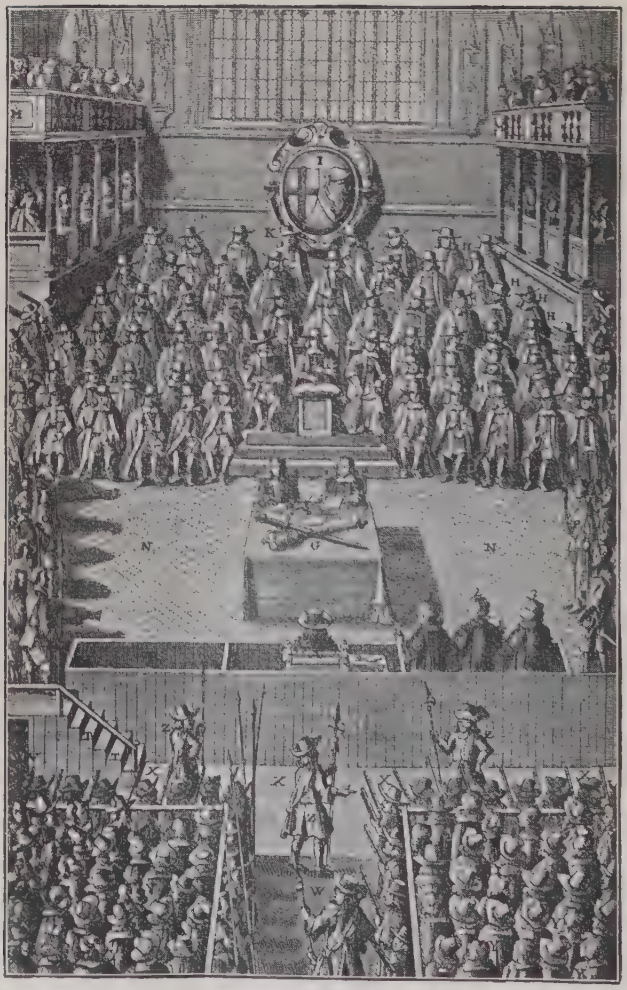
KING. I will answer (the charge) so soon as I know by what authority you do this.

PRESIDENT. If this be all that you will say, then, gentlemen, take the prisoner back again.

KING. I do require that I may give my reasons.

PRESIDENT. Sir, it is not for prisoners to require.

KING. Prisoners! Sir, I am not an ordinary prisoner



The Trial of Charles I.
From a narrative of the Trial.

The King was removed, with the intimation that on the next occasion he would probably hear the final determination of the Court.

On the fourth day, January 27, when the names of the judges were read over, at the name of Fairfax a woman's voice was heard from a gallery crying, "He has more wit than to be here." When the President said the charge was in the name of the People of England, the same voice called out, "No, nor the half of them. It is false. Oliver Cromwell is a traitor." At this there was much excitement. The officer commanding the soldiers actually ordered them to fire in the direction of the voice. But the offender stood up, and showed herself to be Lady Fairfax, and then retired.

Finally the President made a long speech enumerating Charles's "crimes," and declaring the authority of the whole nation over the sovereign. Then the sentence was read, that "Charles Stuart, as a tyrant, traitor, murderer, and a public enemy, shall be put to death by the severing his head from his body." The King tried to speak, but the President cut him short. He left the Court with the words, "I am not suffered for to speak; expect what justice other people will have." The King was now removed to Whitehall Palace, and his execution was fixed for the 30th.

Before his execution Charles was allowed to take farewell of his two children left in London, Henry, Duke of Gloucester, and the Princess Elizabeth, aged nine and thirteen. He bade the Princess mark what he said, for he was not allowed to write. "I am dying," he said, "a martyr for the laws and religion of England. I forgive my enemies, and I hope God will forgive them, and that you and your brother will too. Tell your mother that I have ever loved her, and still do. I doubt not that God will restore the throne to my son." Then he took his son on his knee. "Sweetheart," he said, "now will they cut off thy father's head, and perhaps make thee King. Mark what I say, you must not be King as long as your brothers Charles and James

live." And the child replied, "I will be torn in pieces first." Then with tears and kisses he parted from them.

Execution of Charles I., January 30, 1649.—On January 30, early in the morning, Charles I. was brought from St. James's Palace to Whitehall. To prevent the possibility of a rescue, a scaffold was set up against the

The Banqueting Hall of Whitehall.

The building through which the King was brought out was on the left of the picture; it no longer exists.

front wall of the Banqueting Hall, to this day a conspicuous feature of Whitehall. It reached up to the first floor, and the King was brought out through a window, which was in a building no longer existing. Round the scaffold was a large force of horse and foot, and behind them a crowd of men and women, come, a writer says, "to behold the

saddest sight that England ever saw." As the King came out many people prayed aloud for him, without any rebuke from the soldiers, who were sullen and dejected. The executioner and his assistant, besides the ordinary black masks, wore wigs and beards as a disguise. The ordinary executioner at first refused the task, but he was persuaded by an offer of £30. His wife, it is said, refused to take the money, his friends abandoned him, and he died in the summer from misery of mind. His assistant was an army sergeant, who was induced to act by promise of promotion.

Charles was attended by two gentlemen, and Juxon, Bishop of London, who had been with him in the Isle of Wight. He was calm and cheerful, and behaved with the same dignity as at his trial. His last word to Bishop Juxon was " Remember," which is thought to have referred to the Queen ; for he handed to him her portrait, which he wore on his person, to be given to her. Having prepared himself and placed himself on the block, he gave the signal by holding out his hand ; and the executioner severed his head with one blow. The assistant held up the head, with the usual words, " This is the head of a traitor," and was answered by an angry groan from the crowd. The crowd was dispersed by the troopers, and the scaffold cleared away as soon as possible.

On February 7, Charles's body was, by leave of the Commons, buried in St. George's Chapel, Windsor, by some of his faithful gentlemen and nobles. Snow fell as the coffin was being borne to the chapel, and covered it with a white pall. The vengeance of the King's enemies pursued him even to the grave, for the governor of Windsor Castle refused to allow Bishop Juxon to read the Church of England burial service.

When Queen Henrietta Maria, who was in Paris, heard the fatal news she remained for some hours unable to speak or weep, in spite of all her attendants could do. For a time she retired into a nunnery. On the Continent the greatest horror was expressed.

The execution of Charles I. is one of the saddest events in our history; but we must not regard the authors as criminals. They had what they considered a sufficient reason, as the narrative has shown, and sincerely believed that they were doing God's will. Regarding themselves, as has been mentioned, as the Chosen People of the Old Testament, they looked on the execution of Charles as the slaying of Agag by Samuel. But the execution was a great mistake; it made people forget Charles's errors and regard him as a saint and martyr. So great was the hatred of the act throughout England that, as soon as the nation was able to express its voice, the Monarchy and the Church were restored.

Charles I. perished at the age of forty-eight, in the twenty-fourth year of his reign. Of his children, Charles, Prince of Wales, now nearly nineteen, and James, Duke of York, were in Holland, with the eldest daughter, the Princess of Orange; and the youngest daughter, Henrietta, was with her mother. The Duke of Gloucester was soon sent to her; but the Princess Elizabeth died the next year in captivity in Carisbrooke Castle.

SUMMARY.

Royalists successful during the first two years except where Cromwell fought—Parliament makes alliance with the Scots and takes the Solemn League and Covenant—The Puritans and the Church—Rupert defeated at Marston Moor—Self-denying Ordinance, and New Model army; Cromwell second in command—Charles utterly defeated at Naseby—Montrose's victories and defeat in Scotland—Charles surrenders to the Scots; end of the Civil War.

Scots hand Charles over to the Parliament—Quarrel between the army and Parliament; the army seize Charles—Attempts at a settlement—Second Civil War—The army expels the Presbyterian members ("Pride's Purge")—Trial and execution of Charles I.

DATES.

1645. Battle of Naseby.

1649 (January 30th). Execution of Charles I.

CHAPTER XLII

The Commonwealth, 1649-1660

PROTECTORS

Oliver Cromwell, . .	1653-1658
Richard Cromwell, . .	1658-1659

The "Commonwealth" proclaimed.—England was now for the first time without a sovereign. The Commons declared the Throne and House of Lords abolished, set up a "Council of State" of members and officers, with Bradshaw as President, and proclaimed the country a "Commonwealth," that is, a republic. The change was not popular. The Presbyterian Lord Mayor refused to proclaim the Commonwealth in the city. He was deposed, fined, and imprisoned, and a new Lord Mayor was appointed. When the proclamation was at last made the mob hooted and jeered, and soldiers were sent for to stop the disturbance.

The Puritan Rule. The Church.—Besides being a Commonwealth, England was also under Puritan rule, part since the beginning of the war, the rest since the end. The Puritans had gained a chance of putting their ideas into practice, and establishing righteousness in the land. They not only made severe laws against vice and profanity, and stopped cruel sports, such as bear-baiting, bull-baiting, and cock-fighting; they also forbade more innocent amusements, such as the merry-making of the people, dancing, and the old May games. The Church festivals and fasts, such as Christmas Day and Good Friday, were, of course, forbidden as Popish; we are told of Cromwell going in state on Ash Wednesday to dine in the city.

At the present day in Scotland New Year's Day is more celebrated than Christmas Day.

From the beginning of the Civil War till the end of the Commonwealth about ten thousand clergymen lost their livings, and numbers of them were imprisoned as Papists in disguise or malignant plotters. Others fled from the country, or were supported by Cavalier gentry, and performed the Church services in secret. Sometimes an Independent, coveting a parsonage, would get some soldiers, who plundered it and drove out the rector. Any one was allowed to preach in the pulpits, till later on Cromwell set up a board of "Triers" to examine persons who wished to preach; for the Independents, unlike the Presbyterians, had no ordination.

Religious Sects. The Quakers.—The overthrow of the Church produced many strange sects. There were the "Fifth Monarchy Men," who thought that Christ was speedily coming to reign on earth; this would be the fifth monarchy after the four mentioned in the Book of Daniel. Then there was the "Society of Friends," founded by a man called Fox; they were nicknamed "Quakers" by a magistrate whom Fox told to quake before the word of the Lord. The Quakers have no ministers; any member of the congregation, who feels moved to do so, can preach and pray. They live simple industrious lives, have very strict ideas about truth and honesty, and refuse to take an oath even in a Court of Law, owing to the text, "Let your communication be Yea, Yea, Nay, Nay." All war and violence they hold wicked. They used to have special costumes of plain grey for men and women, and address one another as "thou" instead of "you"; but have given up these peculiarities. As the Quakers regarded themselves as above the law of the land, they were persecuted even under the Commonwealth.

Difficulties of the Government.—The first thing the new government had to do was to secure their position. Had it not been for Cromwell they could hardly have done it.

The Prince of Wales had been proclaimed as Charles II. in Scotland by the angry Presbyterians, and in Ireland, where the loyal Roman Catholics and some English Cavaliers had joined the rebels. Part of the fleet had turned Royalist, and under Prince Rupert was buccaneering in the Channel. Finally there was a party, chiefly in the army, called "Levellers," who wanted every one to be equal, and to have no rulers; and they had to be suppressed. Some regiments, ordered to Ireland, mutinied, but were suppressed by Cromwell and Fairfax, who still retained his command. Some of the ringleaders were shot; and the funeral of one in St. Paul's Churchyard was attended by thousands of people.

Admiral Blake beats Rupert. Cromwell in Ireland, 1649. —The fleet was placed under a Colonel Blake, a Somersetshire member of Parliament, who had done good service in the fighting in the west of England. He proved one of our greatest admirals. During two years he chased Rupert about the world, and at last destroyed his squadron. Rupert, after buccaneering in the West Indies in his own ship, made his way back to France. Cromwell himself was sent to Ireland. When he arrived there, only Dublin and Londonderry in the north were held by Parliament. But the commander at Dublin had recently beaten the Royalists, and Cromwell's fighting was mainly besieging towns. He showed no mercy to the rebels and their allies in revenge for the massacre of the Protestants. First of all Drogheda, on refusing to surrender, was stormed. No quarter was given by Cromwell's orders, and all the officers and nearly all the men were killed in the fighting or put to the sword afterwards; a few were spared, and sent to the plantations of Barbados. All the priests found were, in Cromwell's words, "knocked on the head." This success was won by the "Spirit of God," Cromwell wrote to Parliament, regarding himself as a Joshua slaying the Canaanites.

Wexford next shared the same fate. After this garrisons surrendered more quickly, and were allowed to

depart. In the spring of 1650 Cromwell had to return to England owing to the Scottish trouble, and left his son-in-law, General Ireton, to finish the work. When all resistance was at an end, those Irish soldiers who wished were allowed to go abroad and take service in France and other countries; and many thousands went. All who should be convicted of being concerned in the massacre of Protestants were to be put to death. The Roman Catholic landowners who had been in arms were forced to leave their land and settle in the wild country beyond the Shannon, and Protestants, many of them the victorious soldiers, were settled on the vacant lands. It is no wonder that to this day the name of Cromwell is execrated by the Irish.

Charles II. goes to Scotland, 1650.—The young Charles II. in Holland had his Court and ministers, as if already reigning. His chief adviser was Hyde. He was determined to make an effort to gain his rights. There was no chance for him in England, and his hopes of Ireland were soon destroyed. Scotland alone remained. The Scots made very hard conditions. He was to take the Covenant, have nothing to do with Montrose, and submit to all sorts of restrictions. Hyde was against his accepting. In his difficulties Charles acted in a very crooked way. He secretly sent Montrose with a foreign force to make a rising against the Covenanters, and when Montrose failed, and was hanged at Edinburgh, he said he had never sent him. He now accepted the Covenanters' conditions, and sailed with some Dutch warships to Scotland in the summer of 1650. The Covenanters treated him almost like a prisoner, and forced him to listen to long sermons, and abstain from all frivolous pleasures, of which he was very fond.

Cromwell becomes Captain-General. Battle of Dunbar, September 1650.—Parliament now had to fight the Scots again. Fairfax disapproved of the war; so, against the entreaties of Cromwell and others, he resigned his post, and retired altogether from public affairs to his estate in

Yorkshire, no doubt to the great joy of his wife. He will be heard of again some years later.

Cromwell now became captain-general, and marched into Scotland by Berwick. He found himself opposed by his

Oliver Cromwell, at the beginning of the Civil War.

old comrade of Marston Moor, David Leslie. Leslie's plan was to starve the English army out, without risking a battle. The people were told of Cromwell's cruelty in Ireland, and fled before him ; so he could get no provisions, and at last

had to retreat to Dunbar, on the coast, where the fleet was. Leslie followed him, and encamped on Doon Hill, overlooking Dunbar. Had he only stayed there he would have forced Cromwell to retreat to England. But one evening Cromwell, who in his difficulties was still "trusting in the Lord," saw the Scottish army coming down from their hill. The ministers with Leslie had persuaded him to try to cut off Cromwell's retreat, for the Scots were twice the number of the English. Cromwell exclaimed, "The Lord has delivered them into our hands." At dawn next day, September 3rd, on a wet, misty morning, he suddenly attacked the Scots before they had reached a position where they could form their battle array. The mist rose, the sun shone out; Cromwell exclaimed, in the words of the Psalm, "Let God arise, and let His enemies be scattered!" And the Scots were utterly overthrown. Leslie rode off, and reached Edinburgh by nine o'clock. "The Lord," wrote Cromwell in his report, "made them stubble to our swords." Edinburgh and the Lowlands were soon in Cromwell's power.

Charles II. invades England. Battle of Worcester, September 1651.—The next year Charles was allowed to command with Leslie. The Scottish army lay behind the Forth at Stirling; and when Cromwell crossed the Firth of Forth to attack them in the rear Charles marched into England by Carlisle, hoping to be joined by the English Royalists. But very few came; there was little spirit left in them, and they hated the Scots. Cromwell, leaving a general called Monk, who will be heard of again, to hold Scotland, hurried south. He was joined by the troops in England and militia, and came up with Charles, who had only half his numbers, at Worcester. The battle took place on September 3rd, the anniversary of Dunbar. By means of bridges of boats Cromwell attacked the Scots on both sides of the Severn, and drove them fighting into Worcester, and through the streets, till most were killed or taken. Charles himself, after bravely trying to rally his men, escaped

through a gate to the north. It was, as Cromwell wrote, a "crowning mercy," and ended the civil wars in Great Britain.

A few Royalist prisoners, including the Earl of Derby, were executed. Leslie and other Scottish officers were sent to the Tower. The common men were, as usual, shipped off to the plantations in the colonies.

Flight and Adventures of Charles II.—A reward of £1000 was offered for "Charles Stuart, son of the late tyrant," and troopers scoured the western country after him, but he was nowhere to be found. He had ridden from Worcester to the house of a Roman Catholic gentleman in Staffordshire. There he had cut his hair, stained his face and hands, and put on peasant's dress. Five peasants, brothers named Penderell, undertook to guard him. One day he had to take refuge in an oak tree, from which he watched some troopers riding past. His object was to reach a seaport and take ship for France. He left Staffordshire with a lady, disguised as her servant, under the name of William Jackson, to ride to Bristol. On the way his horse had to be reshod. As he was holding its foot Charles asked the blacksmith for news. "None that I know of," he replied, "since the good news of the beating of those rogues, the Scots." There was no ship to be had at Bristol; and Charles had to go from one loyal country house to another in the west. At Charmouth a ship was procured; but the captain was locked up in his room by his wife, who was afraid he should bring trouble on his family by helping a Royalist lord. Charles hurried away to Bridport, which he found full of soldiers. They, however, did not take much notice of the supposed manservant, who joked with them as he passed on his way to the inn. As there seemed no chance in the west Charles made his way to Sussex, and a ship was found for him at Shoreham. The captain recognised Charles, but he promised to save him, and landed him in Normandy. Charles had been six weeks in his wanderings; nearly

fifty persons had been in the secret, but none had betrayed him.

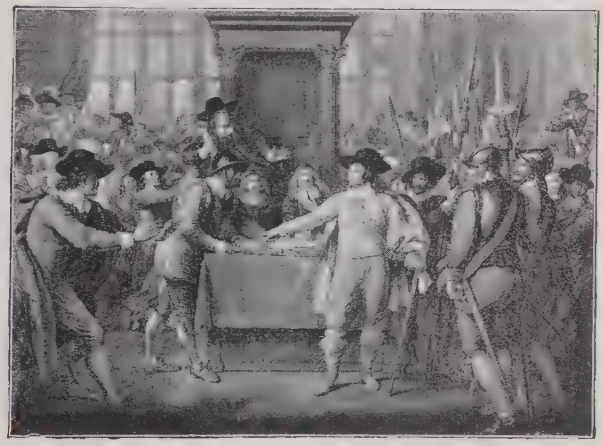
Cromwell and the Commons.—On his return from Worcester Cromwell was granted the palace of Hampton Court and lands worth £4000 a year. He now really ruled England, though he was still only captain-general. Both he and the officers wanted a new Parliament to be summoned, and a regular government set up. The present members agreed to have an election at the end of 1654, but in the Bill which they brought in about it, it was arranged that they should keep their seats in the new Parliament without re-election. To this Cromwell and the officers would not agree.

The first Dutch War, 1652-1654.—While things were in this unsettled state a war broke out with the Dutch. Ill-feeling between the English and their old allies had begun, as you have read, with trade quarrels in the Far East. By this time the Dutch, though their country was only half the size of Ireland, had made themselves the greatest naval and trading state in Europe, which sounds strange to us nowadays. More goods came to England in Dutch ships than in English. The English did not like this, and a law was made that goods from a foreign country might only come in English ships or ships of that country. The Dutch were angry at this, and so war broke out.

The war was fought wholly on the sea. It lasted two years, and was one of the hardest wars we ever fought; for the Dutch admirals were skilful sailors, while ours were mostly soldiers. Blake and Monk, who left Scotland for the war, were our chief admirals; Van Tromp and De Ruyter the Dutch ones. Our fleet was about equal in numbers to the Dutch, for besides the ships built by Charles I. others had been added by the Parliament. Many fierce battles were fought in the Channel and North Sea, with varying results. Once Tromp caught Blake with very inferior numbers, and beat him badly, and then put a broom to his mast-head, to show that he

had swept the English from the sea. But later on Tromp was defeated and killed; and in the end the Dutch made peace in 1654, for their trade was suffering terribly.

Cromwell turns out the Commons, April 1653.—When the war ended the House of Commons no longer existed. Its end was very startling. Cromwell had been trying to come to some agreement with the members, and thought he had done so, when one day he heard that they were actually passing their Bill unaltered. Thereupon he



Cromwell turning out the Long Parliament.

ordered out a company of soldiers, and, accompanied by some generals, he went to the House. Bidding the soldiers stay outside, he went in and took his seat. His appearance was not very military; we are told he was dressed in black, with grey worsted stockings.

Just as the Bill was going to be put to the vote, Cromwell rose from his place and began to speak. Growing gradually angrier—"foaming and raging," his enemies said—he at last burst out, "The Lord hath done with you, and chosen other instruments for His work." A member pro-

tested against such language from one of their "servants." Thereupon Cromwell put on his hat, and strode up and down the floor, exclaiming, "You are no Parliament! We have had enough of this. I will stop your prating." Turning to a general, he said, "Call them in." In came thirty soldiers. The members protested angrily in a scene of great confusion. Cromwell went up to the table on which was the mace. "What shall we do with this bauble?" he exclaimed, "Here, take it away," and gave it to a soldier.

The Speaker, the very same one who had declined to answer King Charles I. when he tried to arrest the five members, refused to leave the chair. "Fetch him down," said Cromwell to a general. "Sir," said the general, "I will lend you my hand." Yielding to this show of force, the Speaker came down from the chair. The members walked out, and the doors were locked. The next day a paper was found nailed to the door, "This house to let, unfurnished," the work of some Royalist joker.

Barebone's Parliament. Cromwell made "Protector." 1653.—The expelled members were, of course, furious. Bradshaw told Cromwell that he could not dissolve Parliament. But dissolved it remained as long as Cromwell lived; after his death, as you will read, it had some more adventures. There was now no legal government at all. Cromwell ruled as captain-general; and the people preferred him to the Commons. He was, however, very anxious to set up a proper government, but he found that it is easier to knock down than to build up. Three times he tried a Parliament, and they were all failures. The first was a very queer Parliament; its members were chosen by Cromwell himself from lists sent in to him by the Independent clergy. They were mostly religious fanatics, with wild ideas of a new reign of saints to be established on earth, and seemed likely to upset everything. So after a few months Cromwell induced them to dissolve themselves. One of the members was called Praise-God

Barbone or Barebone; it was a fashion among these fanatics to take new Christian names from Biblical expressions. The name amused people, and they nicknamed the Parliament "Barebone's Parliament."

Then a council of officers drew up a new constitution, which they called an "Instrument of Government." There was to be a Protector ruling for life, and a House of Commons elected in England, Scotland, and Ireland sitting for three years only. On December 16, 1653, four days after the dissolution of Barebone's Parliament, Cromwell, clad in black velvet, with a gold band round his hat, rode in procession through two lines of soldiers from Whitehall to Westminster Hall. There, after some assumed hesitation, he accepted the office of Protector of the Commonwealth, and returned to Whitehall amid discharges of artillery. He was at once proclaimed in London and throughout the country. The Protector was, of course, king in all but name, as powerful as any king on the Continent. He was addressed as Highness, and signed himself like a king with his Christian name, "Oliver, P."

England was certainly in a strange state. She had got rid of the rightful line of kings, only to fall under the far harsher rule of a country gentleman and his soldiers. Cromwell was hated not only by the "Malignants," as the Royalists were called, and the Presbyterians, but also by the Republicans, Levellers, and other fanatics; they looked upon him as a traitor to the cause of liberty, who had used them as tools for his own advancement. A few Malignants and fanatics were ever plotting against Cromwell. His life was in constant danger; and his mother, who lived at Whitehall till her death in 1654 at the age of ninety-four, was never happy unless she saw him every day. But as long as he lived he was the only possible ruler; and the nation, for the sake of peace and quiet, submitted to his rule, and went about its business as usual. The Malignants lived quietly on their estates, waiting patiently for better days.

Cromwell's second and third Parliaments.—As Pro-

tector, Cromwell summoned two more Parliaments; the Royalists, of course, were not allowed to vote in the elections. Neither was a success. The first one insisted on discussing his right to be Protector, so after six months he dissolved it, at the beginning of 1655. Then, owing to a feeble Royalist rising in Wiltshire, he set up major-generals to rule different parts of the country for a time. In his third Parliament, summoned in 1656, he excluded about a hundred members who were opposed to him. The rest asked him to take the title of king, thinking that would make things more settled. But, as his officers objected, he refused. He was allowed, however, to name his successor, and also to make a new House of Peers of seventy members. Six of them were real peers, but only one condescended to attend. The rest were officers, officials, and members of Parliament. This "mock" House of Peers excited great derision. Cromwell now allowed the excluded members of the Commons to attend. As a result, the Commons were again troublesome, and Cromwell angrily dissolved Parliament at the beginning of 1658. His last words to it were, "God judge between you and me." He died before he could summon another.

Great Powers of Cromwell Abroad. War with Spain, 1655.—Though Cromwell failed to give England a free government, he made the country great and respected abroad, even more than in Elizabeth's reign. The nations of Europe, though horror-stricken at the execution of Charles I., were ready to treat with Cromwell now that he was firmly established in power. The question for him was should he side with France or Spain, which were at war. France, you have read, had taken the part of the Protestants in the terrible Thirty Years' War; and by winning several victories over the Spaniards she had brought that war to an end in 1648. The Emperor had to allow the Protestant German states to keep their religion, and the Elector's son, Rupert's elder brother, recovered the Palatinate. From

this time the Emperor had hardly any authority over the German princes. France was now really the most powerful state in Europe, and more of a danger to England than Spain, as will be seen some years later. But Cromwell, not unnaturally, went back to the policy of Queen Elizabeth; and when the King of Spain refused his request to allow England to trade with the Spanish possessions, he sent a fleet and army to take St. Domingo, the second largest of the West Indian Islands. But the admiral and general were incompetent, and failed disgracefully; and though they took Jamaica, it was thought so worthless that, on their return, they were sent to the Tower, and never employed again.

As the foe of Spain, Cromwell was regarded by the Protestants of Europe as their champion. And when the Duke of Savoy cruelly massacred some "heretics" among his subjects, Cromwell, with the support of the King of France, forced him to promise to treat them properly in future. Milton wrote a famous sonnet about this, beginning, "Avenge, O Lord, Thy slaughtered saints." As you will hear again of Dukes of Savoy, and the present King of Italy is their descendant, it may be mentioned that their dominions included Piedmont in Italy as well as Savoy (now part of France), and their capital was Turin.

Blake in the Mediterranean. The Pirates of Tunis.—Blake was sent with a fleet to the Mediterranean. No English warships had been there since the Crusades; and consequently English traders were exposed to ill-treatment, especially from the Moorish pirates of North Africa, who used to seize our sailors and make slaves of them. The "prisoners and captives" for whom we pray in the Litany were originally mainly the captives of these pirates. Blake with his cannons destroyed the forts and ships of the "Dey," or ruler of Tunis; and he agreed to release his captives for a ransom, and learnt a lesson that lasted him for some time. Blake also made some Italian rulers, and

even the Pope, pay for wrongs committed on Englishmen by their subjects. Cromwell was delighted with Blake's conduct, and said he would make the name of Englishman as much respected as the name of Roman had been in ancient days.

Blake's last Exploits and Death. Battle of the Dunes, 1658.—The next year (1656) Blake was sent to attack

Admiral Blake.

Cadiz and capture the Spanish treasure fleet as Drake had done. Cadiz was now too strong to be attacked, but Blake succeeded in catching the treasure fleet, and capturing six out of the eight ships, with a vast amount of gold and silver. The next year he attacked Santa Cruz, the port

of Teneriffe, in the Canaries, where he heard that a treasure fleet had taken refuge. Though the port was strongly fortified, Blake forced his way in under a heavy fire and destroyed the ships; but the gold and silver had been landed, so he did not get it. This great exploit was celebrated in England by a day of thanksgiving. But it was Blake's last exploit; worn out by the hardships of a sea life, and the effects of an old wound, he lay dying on the voyage home. He repeatedly asked if England was in sight, and died as he was approaching Plymouth, at the age of fifty-eight. Blake was buried in Westminster Abbey; he ranks among our greatest admirals after Nelson.

This year (1657) Cromwell made an alliance with France against Spain; he sent six thousand men to help the French in the Spanish Netherlands, on condition that the port of Dunkirk when taken should be given to England. The fighting qualities of the Puritan soldiers astonished the French generals; and in June 1658 they took the chief part in a great victory over the Spaniards among the "dunes," or sandhills, on the coast near Dunkirk, and earned the name of the "Immortal Six Thousand." The result was that Dunkirk was taken. In this battle of the Dunes, as it is called, there was a regiment of English Royalists on the Spanish side. Peace was made next year, France increased her territory, and England gained Dunkirk, which seemed to make up for the loss of Calais a century before.

Death of Cromwell, September 3, 1658.—A few months after the victory of the Dunes the great Protector passed away. He had been for some time suffering from gout and other ailments. Family sorrows, the death of a son-in-law a year after marriage, and of his favourite daughter; the difficulties of his rule; and the numerous plots against his life, though always discovered in time, told on his health. All through the summer he suffered from repeated attacks of illness, and died on September 3rd, his "fortunate day," the anniversary of the victories of Dunbar

and Worcester. He was buried with royal pomp in Westminster Abbey. But his death was little regretted; his funeral, we are told, was the joyfullest funeral ever seen. Oliver Cromwell was undoubtedly a very great man, one of our ablest statesmen and soldiers. His religion was stern, but undoubtedly sincere. Few men, ruling as he did by the sword, have been less cruel; in the two acts which are the blots on his character—the execution of Charles I. and his cruelty in Ireland—there is no doubt that he sincerely believed himself the instrument of God; and they were approved of by many good men. He won the battle of England's freedom, though he could not give her freedom himself; and he made her great abroad. The strangest part of his career is that up till the age of forty-three he had been a simple country gentleman and an ordinary member of Parliament.

Richard Cromwell, Protector, September 1658 to May 1659.—So great was the mere power of Cromwell's name that his eldest living son, Richard, now thirty-two years of age, succeeded as Protector without any opposition, as if he had been heir to a long-established throne.

Richard Cromwell had none of the great qualities of his father. He was an ordinary country gentleman, had never fought in the wars, and was no religious enthusiast. So the nation had no respect for him, and the army soon became restive. The leading generals now were Monk in Scotland; Fleetwood, son-in-law to Cromwell; and Lambert, who had turned against Cromwell and been dismissed by him. Richard's brother, Henry, was a soldier, but was commanding in Ireland. He wrote to Fleetwood imploring him, by the memory of his father-in-law, to support Richard, but in vain.

By the next spring Richard Cromwell found that it was hopeless to struggle against the army, and in May 1659 resigned the Protectorship and retired into private life. Henry Cromwell soon after was forced to resign his command in Ireland.

With the resignation of "Tumbledown Dick," as he was contemptuously called, the Protectorate came to an end, after lasting six years. Lambert now took the lead with Fleetwood. They first restored the members of the Long Parliament, who had been expelled by Cromwell. The Royalists naturally took the opportunity to make a rising, encouraged by Charles II., but Lambert easily crushed it. Then he quarrelled again with the Parliament, and expelled it a second time. The country hated both the army, with its upstart generals, and the Parliament, and wanted a free Parliament to settle affairs. London and the fleet were on the same side. Even the army itself was divided. A time of utter confusion and fresh civil war seemed approaching.

General Monk marches down from Scotland.—Fortunately there was one man strong enough to save the country. This was General Monk. He was a soldier rather than a politician. At first he had fought for the King, but had been captured in the army that came to the King's help from Ireland. He had afterwards taken service under Cromwell, but had never fought against the Royalists of England. He had always been loyal to Cromwell and his son; and he hated Lambert. In the autumn, having got rid of such officers as he could not trust, he marched for England, and crossed the Tweed in December at the head of six thousand men. Fairfax rose in Yorkshire on his side. Lambert marched north; but his men did not trust him, and began to desert. So he was soon compelled to surrender. Fleetwood, in London, lost heart, and allowed the Long Parliament to meet a third time. As Monk marched on towards London, the gentry along the route petitioned him to allow a "Free Parliament." But he made no reply. Probably he had already decided to restore Charles II.; some say he was already in communication with him. But he was not going to make the mistake of acting too soon.

Monk in London, 1660. He declares for a Free Parlia-

ment.—Monk reached London at the beginning of February 1660, and found the city almost in rebellion against the Parliament. No one dared oppose him, and he was master of the situation. He acted very cleverly; acknowledged the authority of the Parliament, and by their orders broke down the city gates. But the next day he went to a

General Monk.

meeting of the City Council, and declared that the nation should have what it wanted, a Free Parliament. At this the Londoners went mad with joy. That night bonfires were lit all along the streets, the church bells rang, and there was wild merry-making.

Next, Monk invited the Presbyterian members, who had been excluded by "Pride's Purge," to return to their places.

They formed a majority in the Commons, who now passed a vote that a Free Parliament should be elected, and then dissolved themselves. That was the real end of the famous Long Parliament, after being once "purged" and twice expelled by armed force. It began by being the most popular of Parliaments, and ended by being the most detested.

The Restoration.—There was no doubt that Charles II. would come back. Men were openly drinking his health.

Landing of Charles II. at Dover.

All about the country people were turning against the soldiers; at some places boys marched about with flags and insulted them. There were a few conflicts, but the soldiers without leaders were helpless. At the end of April the new Parliament met, and the Peers returned to the House of Lords. The Commons were mostly Presbyterians and Royalists.

Charles, who was again in Holland, sent a message to Parliament, promising freedom of conscience, and forgive-

ness to all, except such as Parliament should except. On May 1st Parliament voted that he should become King; and there was another outburst of popular joy. The fleet was sent to fetch the new King. The flagship bore the ill-omened name of the *Naseby*, but it came back with the new name of the *Charles*. Accompanied by his brothers, the Dukes of York and Gloucester, his minister Hyde, and the other Royalist exiles, Charles II. landed at Dover on May 25th. He was welcomed by General Monk with many noblemen and gentry, and the citizens of Dover, headed by their mayor. He journeyed in a state coach through Canterbury to London. All along the route the people turned out to welcome him, and his entry into London on the 29th, his birthday, was one of the most joyful events in our history.

Thus the Commonwealth came to an end, and the old Monarchy was restored. The result of the Civil War and troubles was this: the nation had shown that its sovereign must govern through Parliament, not against it; that it did not want a republic or Puritan rule; and that, more than anything else, it hated the rule of an army.

So now a fresh start was to be made, and the Stuarts were given a second chance; what they did with it will be seen.

SUMMARY.

The Commonwealth—England and the Church under the Puritans—Dislike of the new government—Its successes over its enemies; Prince Rupert's fleet scattered by Blake; Ireland crushed by Cromwell; his victories over the Scots and Charles II.—The first Dutch war—Cromwell turns out the Long Parliament—"Barebone's Parliament"—Cromwell made "Protector"; his unpopularity—His failure with his two Parliaments—His power abroad as Protestant champion—War with Spain; capture of Jamaica; Blake's exploits—Battle of the Dunes—Death of Cromwell—Richard Cromwell's short Protectorate—Confusion in England—General Monk marches down from Scotland—The Restoration.

DATES.

1651. Battle of Worcester.
1653. Cromwell turns out the Parliament, and is made Protector
1658. Death of Cromwell.
1660. The Restoration.

CHAPTER XLIII

Charles II., 1660-1685
The Restored Monarchy

Charles II. and his Court.—Charles II. was thirty years old when he obtained his crown in such a surprisingly easy way. He was as great a contrast to his ill-fated father, as his father had been to James I. Genial, witty, and easy-going, the "Merry Monarch," as he was called, was popular with the Londoners. But he was dissolute in his life, and his Court was the most disgraceful in our history. The people, tired of the Puritan strictness, did not judge Charles II. harshly, but the better-minded Royalists felt his conduct deeply. Society was equally bad, and virtue was regarded as mere hypocrisy.

The famous lines on Charles II.:—

> "Here lies our sovereign lord King Charles,
> Whose word no man relies on;
> He never said a foolish thing,
> And never did a wise one"

were composed one day when the courtiers were amusing themselves by making epitaphs on one another.

Charles replied that his words were his own, his acts were his ministers. As a matter of fact, as will be seen, he was, underneath all his frivolity, a very clever statesman; but, unfortunately, he did not use his cleverness for the good of England.

The Restoration Settlement.—At the Restoration everything in the government and Church simply went back to what it had been before the Civil War. As to Revenue,

the Customs and some other taxes were voted to Charles for life; these, with the Crown property, brought over £1,000,000 a year. But the expenses of government had increased, so Charles was not independent of Parliament.

Some of the Royalists were clamouring for vengeance. But Charles kept to his promise. The Convention excepted from the pardon all who had been concerned in the execution of Charles I.—the regicides as they were called—and a few others, including Lambert. Many fled abroad. Ten were executed after trial; nineteen others were imprisoned, including the assistant executioner. Lambert was condemned to death, but was imprisoned in the island of Guernsey till his death, twenty years later.

Richard Cromwell had gone abroad owing to his debts. No notice was taken of him; he returned near the end of the reign, and lived till the beginning of the next century. Henry Cromwell was also left alone.

There was one needless and savage act of vengeance. The bodies of Cromwell, Ireton, and Bradshaw were taken from their graves in Westminster Abbey and hung in chains at Tyburn, where was the gallows for common criminals. Even the great Admiral Blake was not allowed to rest in peace; his coffin was removed from the Abbey to the neighbouring church of St. Margaret's.

The hated army was, of course, disbanded. Without leaders, it was helpless. The soldiers who had held down England, Scotland, and Ireland so long, and won so great a name abroad, went quietly back to their homes, and lived soberly and industriously in the humble ranks of life. But owing to an outbreak of fanatics it was felt that some troops were wanted in London. So a regiment of foot-guards—the present Coldstream Guards—was raised from Monk's men. Its name recalls the events of those days; for Coldstream is the village at which Monk crossed the Tweed, and his men were known during their march through England as the Coldstreamers. Some of the cavalry were also kept—the present Life Guards. This

was the beginning of the British army. Other regiments were added from time to time, but for a long time the memory of Cromwell made the country suspicious of a standing army. But the fleet was kept up, for it could not be an instrument of tyranny, and was wanted against the Dutch.

The Cavalier Parliament. Earl of Clarendon (Hyde) chief Minister. Charles II.'s Policy.—After settling these

Life Guards.

matters the Convention was dissolved, and in the second part of the year a new Parliament was summoned. It is known as the "Cavalier Parliament," because most of the members were Royalists. It lasted eighteen years—three-quarters of the reign. Royalist as it was, in the course of time it had reason to quarrel with Charles.

Charles took Hyde, whom he made Earl of Clarendon, as his chief minister. The Duke of York fell in love with Clarendon's daughter, and married her, at which Charles and Queen Henrietta Maria were very angry, for it

was thought beneath the dignity of a prince to marry a subject. Among the other ministers were men who had been on the Parliament side, but opponents of Cromwell. Charles rewarded Monk by making him Duke of Albemarle; he did not take him as a minister, but employed him in the army and navy.

Charles was resolved, as he said, never to go on his travels again. So he was careful to govern through Parliament, which with the Cavalier Parliament was not difficult. So for the first half of his reign things went smoothly; how troubles then arose, and what came of them, you will see.

The Church.—The settlement of the Church had been left to the new Parliament. As at the beginning of James I.'s reign, a Conference was held between twelve bishops and twelve Puritan divines. It was called the "Savoy Conference," because it was held at the Savoy Palace, which was now a hospital; for it had never been used again as a palace since the mob plundered it in Richard II.'s reign, nearly three hundred years before.

The Puritans were just as obstinate as before, so the result was again a failure. And, as before, those clergy who would not accept the Church services, about two thousand in number, had to resign their livings. They were known as "Dissenters" instead of Puritans. Parliament passed several laws against the Dissenters during the next years. A "Corporation Act" forbade any one being a member of a Town Corporation who did not receive the Holy Communion according to the Church of England. A Conventicle Act made any religious meeting of more than five Dissenters illegal. The Five Mile Act forbade a Dissenting minister to live within five miles of a town, or make a living by teaching. These laws were enforced by severe punishments, which the Dissenters bravely endured. But the more moderate Presbyterian Puritans gradually came back to the Church, and formed the Low Church Party.

The Restoration in Scotland and Ireland.—The Scots had so hated Cromwell that they welcomed the Restoration, and Charles was able to get a Cavalier Parliament there also. The Covenanters soon found out their mistake. Charles had never forgiven them for their treatment of him. The Earl of Argyll, the Covenanter leader, who had executed Montrose, was now himself condemned for treason, and executed. The Parliament declared the Covenant illegal, and set up bishops again. Numbers of ministers were turned out of their livings, and one who protested against the bishops was hanged. The chief resistance was among the peasants, who were cruelly persecuted; later in the reign they rebelled. In Ireland the Restoration was good for the Roman Catholics, who were allowed their own worship; but the Presbyterian Scots in the north were persecuted, and some left the country, which was bad for English rule. As to the land, it was found impossible to turn out the Cromwellian settlers, but in the end they gave up a third of their lands to the old owners.

Sale of Dunkirk. Acquisition of Bombay in India.—In foreign affairs the result of the change from Cromwell to Charles II. was soon shown. In the second year of his reign Charles sold Dunkirk to Louis XIV. for £500,000, to the great indignation of the nation, who put all the blame on Clarendon. It would have been no use to us as a port, as we had no army to land there; but our commerce again suffered from the Dunkirk sailors. Louis XIV. wanted Dunkirk to strengthen France against Spain. For the same reason he persuaded Charles to marry the daughter of the King of Portugal, Katharine of Braganza, in order to help Portugal against Spain; for Portugal had now made herself independent again. Charles sent some soldiers to Lisbon, and received as Katharine's dowry the Portuguese settlement of Bombay on the west coast of India, and Tangiers on the African coast opposite Spain, which the Portuguese had formerly conquered from the Moors.

Tangiers was so unhealthy and expensive that Charles gave it up to the Moors at the end of the reign, and it became a nest of pirates like Tunis. But Bombay he sold to the East India Company, and it became one of their chief settlements. This was the one good thing that Charles II. did.

The second Dutch War, 1665-1667.—In the sixth year of the reign (1665) there broke out a second war with the Dutch. It was caused by quarrels between English and Dutch settlements on the west coast of Africa, and between the colonies in America, where the year before the war was actually declared the colonists, aided by an English squadron, conquered the Dutch colony of New Amsterdam. The fighting in the narrow seas was just as fierce as in the first war. The Duke of York was Lord High Admiral; the other leading admirals were the Duke of Albemarle, the Earl of Sandwich, and Prince Rupert, who had returned to England. De Ruyter was again the chief Dutch admiral. Louis XIV., as an enemy of Spain, was in alliance with the Dutch; but he did not give them much help, for he really wanted to have Charles's friendship to use it for his own purposes.

The Duke of York won a victory the first year, but did not follow it up well. The second year the Duke of Albemarle was in command, and while the squadron of Prince Rupert was absent he was attacked by De Ruyter with very superior numbers off the Kentish coast. For four days a terrible battle was fought. Prince Rupert came up at the end of the third day, and the Duke of Albemarle was able to withdraw his shattered fleet, with a loss of several ships and two thousand prisoners.

The first account made the battle out to be a victory, and the King ordered bonfires and bell-ringing; "but," says a gentleman named Evelyn, who has left a diary of these times, "God knows it was rather a deliverance than a triumph." A few days afterwards he saw the fleet at Sheerness. "I beheld," he says, "the sad spectacle,

more than half that gallant bulwark of the kingdom miserably shattered, hardly a vessel entire, but appearing rather so many wrecks and hulls, so cruelly had the Dutch mangled us." Many people nowadays, when discussing the navy, talk only of the Spanish Armada and Nelson's

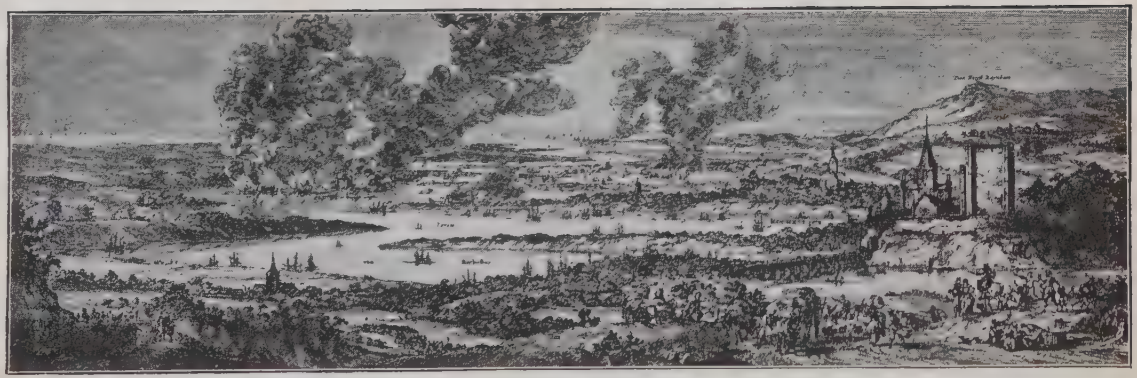
Prince Rupert in robes of a Knight of the Garter.

great victories; and think our fleet is always victorious. They should also remember these old Dutch wars. However, when our ships had been repaired, and fresh ones fitted out, the Duke of Albemarle won a victory and ravaged the Dutch coast.

The Dutch in the Thames. Peace, 1667.—By this time both Dutch and English were ready for peace. France had attacked and conquered a large part of the Spanish Netherlands, and was thus coming so unpleasantly near to Holland that the Dutch were becoming frightened of their old ally. But before peace was made we suffered one of the greatest disgraces in our history. The Commons had voted large sums of money for the war, but the "Merry Monarch" had spent some of it on his own pleasures. So being now in want of money, and thinking peace was certain, he did not fit out the larger ships, and left the sailors without their pay. De Ruyter found this out, and suddenly in June appeared at the Thames mouth with his fleet. He took Sheerness, forced his way up the Medway as far as Chatham, and took or burnt the warships lying there. London was in wild alarm. Tradesmen began to remove their goods. The train-bands were called out, and the Duke of Albemarle was put in command; batteries were thrown up along the river, fire-ships prepared, and merchant vessels sunk below Woolwich to block the channel, some with valuable cargoes still on board, such was the hurry and confusion. Many sailors refused to serve till they were paid, and declared they would sooner fight for the Dutch than the King, for then they would be well paid; and some did actually desert. The Dutch could not advance past Tilbury, but they lay at the Nore stopping all trade, till peace was signed in August.

Though the Dutch got some things, they allowed us to keep their American colony, which was renamed New York, after the Duke of York, to whom it was granted by the King. Thus England now had the whole strip of American coast from the north of New England to the south of Virginia.

The Plague of London, 1665.—During the Dutch war two remarkable events had occurred—the Plague and Fire of London. The Plague was the old Black Death, to which Europe and England had always been subject since



Burning of the men-of-war in the Medway.
The Thames is in the background. The town on the right is Rochester.
From a Dutch print.

its first arrival from the East in Edward III.'s reign. It seemed to be disappearing at the end of the last century, but there were two terrible outbreaks just after the accession of James I. and Charles I. Whether this outbreak was really worse than the others is doubtful; but we know more about it, and it was, at any rate, the last.

The spring of 1665, the first year of the war, had been very dry, and the summer was sultry, so that it was an unhealthy year. The plague began in May with a few cases in the poor part outside the walls to the north-east. It gradually grew worse, and travelled from parish to parish. It was worst in September, when there were a thousand deaths from it a day, whereas the usual death-rate of London was under twenty thousand a year. All trade and business were stopped. The Court and Parliament had removed to Oxford, and most of the wealthy, and even the doctors and clergymen, to their shame, had fled. But the Lord Mayor remained to look after the people, and several Dissenting ministers returned to the deserted pulpits. There were strict rules in time of plague. Directly there was a case in a house no one was allowed to leave it for a month; watchmen were posted to it day and night; a red cross was painted on the door, with the words, "Lord have mercy on us." Carts went round at night to collect the bodies of the victims, to the dreadful cry of "Bring out your dead"; and they were flung, without any burial service or mourners, into huge pits. The disease was terribly rapid; the sign of it was swellings on the body; and very few recovered when it was at its height. Some people went mad from terror; others grew reckless, and sought relief in revelling and drinking. The city was silent and desolate, grass grew in the streets, and whole rows of houses stood empty or marked with the terrible cross. Fanatics, too, appeared denouncing Heaven's doom on London for its sins.

With the cool winds of autumn the plague began to abate, by December it was gone, and in the following

February the Court returned, and London life went on again as usual; but out of its five hundred thousand inhabitants nearly one hundred thousand had perished. For two years more the plague lingered on in various parts of the country, and then departed for ever.

The Great Fire of London, 1666.—Hardly had London recovered from this awful visitation when the great fire came. It broke out on Sunday, September 2, 1666, at one in the morning, in Pudding Lane, near London Bridge. As there was a strong east wind blowing, and the houses were mainly of wood, the flames spread with fearful rapidity. The next day the fire was two miles long and a mile wide; ten thousand houses were burning, Evelyn tells us; the roar of the flames, the shrieking of women and children, the hurrying of people, the crashes of falling houses and churches were like a hideous storm. The Lord Mayor tried to stop it by having houses pulled down; but the work was too slow, and the fire always overtook them. The streets were crowded with carts, and the river with boats, in which people were carrying away their goods.

On Tuesday St. Paul's Cathedral went, the stones splitting with loud explosions, and the lead from the roof running in streams down the streets. On Wednesday the wind dropped, and the fire began to abate; it was finally stopped by blowing up houses, and so making gaps which it could not cross. Sailors had suggested this plan at the beginning, but people refused to allow their houses to be blown up. Charles and the Duke of York had helped energetically with the guards in fighting the fire.

Except a narrow strip to the north-east, London within the old walls was entirely destroyed; the Tower was saved. Outside to the west the fire spread to the Temple buildings on the river, which were just saved, and as far as the modern Law Courts and Holborn Viaduct. Some houses on the Bridge were burnt, but the fire did not get across. Strange to say, only six persons perished, for the people had time to escape before the fire reached their houses. The in-

habitants encamped in tents and huts north of the city, as far as Hampstead and Highgate, in a miserable plight. Plans were at once made for the rebuilding. The great architect, Sir Christopher Wren, presented a very fine one with broad, straight streets leading up to St. Paul's. But this would have taken time, and the merchants and shopkeepers wanted to get back to their business.

Old St. Paul's. The steeple was no longer existing (see the picture on p. 543), having been destroyed by lightning The little building on the left is a parish church.

So the houses were rebuilt on the old lines. But Parliament passed a law that all houses were to be of brick or stone. Wren and another architect were set over the rebuilding. Wren occupied himself chiefly with the cathedral and the churches, eighty-nine of which had been destroyed. He began the new St. Paul's in 1675; the choir was opened in 1697, and the cathedral finished in 1716. He

also erected the monument on the spot where the fire began.

An inquiry was held into the cause of the fire; and a French Roman Catholic made a confession that he started it, and he was hanged. He afterwards turned out to be insane, and not to have been in London when the fire broke out. But the popular belief was that the fire was due to the Roman Catholics; and there was an inscription on the monument stating so, which remained till last century.

As the fleet was mostly at sea, and when at home its station was in the Medway, neither the plague nor the fire had much effect on the Dutch war.

Fall of the Earl of Clarendon, 1667.—These three visitations—the Plague, the Fire of London, and the Dutch in the Thames—were regarded by the nation as the judgments of Heaven on the sins of the government, and the blame was laid on the Earl of Clarendon. The Commons also had a quarrel with him. When they found that Charles spent some of the money granted for the war on his own pleasures they passed a vote that money voted for a certain purpose should be spent only for that purpose, and Clarendon said they had no right to do this. Clarendon had annoyed Charles and the Court by his strict notions; Buckingham, son of Charles I.'s minister, and a favourite companion of the King, used to amuse him by mimicking the serious minister. Soon after the peace Charles, to please the Commons, dismissed Clarendon. To escape impeachment he fled to France; there he occupied his time in completing his famous *History of the Great Rebellion*, which he had begun in his former exile. After seven years he died.

Charles and Roman Catholicism. Louis XIV. of France.—Charles, bad as his life was, was religious enough to be in secret a Roman Catholic. He and the Duke of York had been converted by their mother. Their sister Henrietta, who had married the Duke of Orleans, brother of

Louis XIV., was an open Roman Catholic. The Duke of Gloucester had refused to be converted; but he, unfortunately for the Stuart line, had died. Also the Duke of York's only children, Mary and Anne, were Protestants; this afterwards proved very important.

Louis XIV.

The "Grand Monarque" of France.

Charles, urged on by the Jesuits, was hoping, when the chance occurred, to make England Roman Catholic. This probably had something to do with his dismissing Clarendon.

In those days the greatest figure in Europe was Louis XIV.

of France, the "Grand Monarque" as he was called; and he plays a great part in our history during the next fifty years. France, by making use of the Protestants, had triumphed over Spain and the Emperor, and had taken the place of Spain as the great Catholic power of Europe. Louis XIV. was an ardent Roman Catholic; and the triumph of France was to be the triumph of the Roman Church. Now we shall find Spain and the Emperor fighting with the Protestants against her; thus did nations use religion to help their worldly schemes. Louis XIV., now about thirty years of age, was an able, hard-working ruler, but absurdly vain. Like all Continental kings, he ruled absolutely; "The State is myself" was one of his sayings. He had able ministers, the best generals, and the finest army in Europe; and the French, intoxicated with the national triumph, bowed down before him, almost worshipped him as divine, and looked to him for further glory. It was the great literary age in France, the age of the great dramatists—Molière, Corneille, and Racine—just as Shakespeare arose in the great days of Elizabeth in England. At Versailles, twelve miles from Paris, Louis built a magnificent palace; and his splendid Court there was the admiration of Europe, and was imitated by all the little princes of Germany.

Louis XIV.'s Secret Treaty with Charles, 1670.—The year after their peace with England the Dutch had stopped Louis's further conquest of the Spanish Netherlands by making an alliance with England and Sweden. Louis was determined to be revenged on the "Shopkeepers of Holland," as he called them, who had dared to confront him. For this he saw a useful tool in Charles. So he sent Henrietta over to England, and she persuaded her brother Charles to make a secret treaty with him. Charles agreed to join France in the conquest of Holland for a share in the spoils and help in money, and also, when the time seemed suitable, to declare himself a Roman Catholic, and establish that religion in England; whereupon Louis would help him with soldiers and more money. This treaty

was made in 1670; two ministers, who were Roman Catholics, knew the whole treaty, the others only knew of the part about Holland. It was the most disgraceful thing that Charles II. did, and it was the cause of the troubles in the latter part of his reign, and, in the end, of the overthrow of the Stuart dynasty.

It was madness now to try to make England Roman Catholic, and fatal to try to do so by the help of a foreign army. "No Popery or Wooden Shoes" became a popular cry in England; "wooden shoes" meant France, where the peasants still wear wooden shoes, called "sabots."

The third Dutch War, 1672-1674.—Two years later, in 1672, the war, the third Dutch war for England, began. A huge French army, including six thousand English, crossed the Rhine, and the English and French fleets were to land troops on the coast. William, Prince of Orange, Charles's nephew, now twenty-three years of age, commanded the Dutch army. He was obliged to retreat to Amsterdam, and the Dutch, in despair, were thinking of sailing away to their East Indian possessions. But the Prince opened the dykes, as had been done a hundred years before against the Spaniards, and so kept the French at bay. And the veteran De Ruyter prevented any invasion by sea by skilfully holding his own in three fights against the superior number of the English and French fleets. The English complained that the French did not support them properly. Soon, too, Spain and Germany joined in the war against France, and Holland was saved from immediate danger.

The Declaration of Indulgence and the Test Act.—Charles did not openly declare himself a Roman Catholic. But the Duke of York did so, and also after the death of Anne Hyde took a Roman Catholic wife—Mary, daughter of the Italian Duke of Modena. Charles preferred to begin very cautiously. He issued a decree called a "Declaration of Indulgence," which meant that the laws against the Roman Catholics and Dissenters should not be

Prince Rupert. De Ruyter Prince of Orange. Tromp the Younger. French Admiral.

Sea fight in third Dutch War.

put in force. This was too much for the Cavalier Church Party in Parliament, already disgusted with the Dutch war. They protested strongly against the King dispensing with laws, and passed a Test Act, by which every holder of any post, civil or military, had to declare himself a Protestant.

Charles, on his principle of not opposing Parliament, agreed to the Test Act, and dropped the Declaration. The Duke of York had to leave his post of Lord High Admiral, and one of the ministers resigned. In fact, Charles thought it wiser to drop his religious scheme altogether, to the great disappointment of the Jesuits; and the next year he also made peace with the Dutch. The war on the Continent went on for four years more. The English would have liked to join in against France, and, as in former times, many English and Scots went over and fought in the Prince of Orange's army. He was a good general, but the French generals were better. Though he suffered defeats yet he never lost heart, and continued to show a bold front. The peace left Holland safe, but terribly weakened, which was an advantage to England, as the Dutch were never again able to rival us at sea. Louis XIV. got some more territory from Spain and Germany, and France was more powerful than ever. From this time the Prince of Orange made it the object of his life to check Louis XIV., and was regarded as the Protestant champion of Europe.

The Earl of Danby. Bribery of Members of Parliament. The Dutch Marriage.—When Charles changed his policy he took as his chief minister a Cavalier country gentleman, whom he made Earl of Danby. He was supported by what was called the Court Party; and he tried to make his party strong by bribing members to vote for him by giving them posts in the government and Court, or even by presents of money. This bribery, which seems strange to us now, went on for over a century. But Danby did one good thing. Being a strong Protestant, and opposed

to France, he arranged a marriage between the Duke of York's daughter Mary and her cousin, the Prince of Orange. Both Louis XIV. and the Duke of York disliked the marriage, foreseeing what harm it might do them one day. But Charles, as usual, gave way to his minister.

The "Popish Plot," 1678.—Just after the end of the war on the Continent there was great alarm in England about a Popish Plot. The facts were these.

The Jesuits were still scheming to make England Roman Catholic; they had turned from Charles to the Duke of York, and his secretary was in correspondence with them; there was, however, as yet no actual plan. This was all the real Popish plot. But there was a wretched man called Titus Oates, who began his career by being expelled from school. He then became a clergyman, and was again in trouble. Next, he joined the Church of Rome, and went to a Jesuit college; but he was expelled, and returned to London. He was quite penniless; so, in the hope of getting a large reward, he pretended that he knew of a Jesuit plot to murder the King, set up Roman Catholicism by means of French and Irish soldiers, and kill all Protestants who would not change their religion. He swore to all this before a magistrate, and gave the names of persons concerned in the plot. Among them was the Duke's secretary, who was arrested. His papers were seized, and his correspondence with the Jesuits discovered. Then the magistrate was found murdered in a lonely spot outside London. The murderers were never discovered, but, of course, were supposed to be Roman Catholics. There was the wildest excitement in London. The citizens really believed their lives were in danger. The train-bands patrolled the streets at night; men carried little sticks weighted with lead, called "Protestant flails"; and the murdered magistrate was given a public funeral.

The Earl of Shaftesbury. End of the Cavalier Parliament; the "Habeas Corpus" Act, 1679.—There was a clever but tricky statesman, the Earl of Shaftesbury, who had been

first a Royalist and then a Parliamentarian in the Civil War; then an opponent of Cromwell, and a supporter of the Restoration. Charles had made him a minister and a peer, but he had quarrelled with the King on finding out about the secret treaty. Shaftesbury was forming a party against the King called the "Country Party." Whether he really believed in the plot or not, he found it a useful weapon, and did his best to stir up Protestant feeling. He induced the House of Commons to vote its belief in the "diabolical plot." Oates was rewarded with £1200 a year; other informers came forward. The unfortunate secretary was tried and hanged; other victims suffered during the next year. They had no chance with Protestant judges and jurymen. Charles did not believe in the plot, but he bowed before the storm, and signed the warrants for execution.

In the midst of the excitement Louis wreaked his vengeance on Danby for the Dutch marriage. Danby had from loyalty allowed Charles to receive money from Louis, and Louis now revealed the fact. The Commons in their indignation impeached Danby, and Charles, to protect him, dissolved Parliament. Such was the end of the "Cavalier Parliament" in 1679, after a life of eighteen years. A new Parliament was at once summoned, and the Country Party were in a majority. Danby was sent to the Tower, but his impeachment was dropped.

Shaftesbury was made a minister again, and passed an Act most important for the liberty of the country. According to law a prisoner ought to be brought to trial as soon as possible. But the judges had allowed the order of the sovereign to be a reason for keeping a man in prison. The new Act stated this to be unlawful, so that in no case could a man be kept in prison without trial. It was called the "Habeas Corpus" Act, from the Latin words of the "writ," or order, for the man to be brought up for trial.

The Exclusion Bill.—But after this Shaftesbury made a great mistake, which in the end ruined him. As Charles's Queen had no children there was fear that one day the

Roman Catholic Duke of York would succeed to the throne; and if he had a son by his second wife he would be a Roman Catholic, and succeed before his half-sisters.

Shaftesbury, trusting in the Popish Plot excitement, brought in a Bill called the "Exclusion Bill," to take away the Duke's right of succession. Parliament had never for some centuries claimed to alter the succession; and to make matters worse, Shaftesbury put forward as heir not the Princess of Orange, but a son of Charles II., born before the Restoration, to whose mother Charles had never really been married. Charles was very fond of this son; he had him at Court, and made him Duke of Monmouth. He was a handsome young man, but of weak character and frivolous.

Moderate people disliked the Exclusion Bill, which was very like rebellion; and the excitement about the Popish Plot was dying out. Charles felt that Shaftesbury had gone too far, and that it would be safe to fight the Exclusion Bill. So he dismissed Shaftesbury, and dissolved Parliament. Thus the old parties of the Civil War were again in conflict, but neither side wanted another civil war.

Rising of Covenanters in Scotland, 1679.—At this time there was a rising of Covenanters in Scotland, chiefly of the lower orders, led by some preachers. It began with the murder of Sharp, Archbishop of St. Andrews, who was hated because he had been a Presbyterian, and had deserted his cause. When driving with his daughter near St. Andrews, with only few attendants, he was attacked by some fanatics, dragged from his carriage, and killed amid the cries and tears of his daughter. The fanatical Covenanters regarded this murder as a triumph.

One of the leading officers in Scotland at this time was John Graham of Claverhouse, afterwards the famous Viscount Dundee. He was a relation of the great Montrose, and had been fighting under the Prince of Orange. Claverhouse, in trying to disperse one of these meetings, was

repulsed. The Covenanters rose in arms, and Charles sent Monmouth to put down the rising, perhaps glad of a chance of getting rid of him. With the aid of Claverhouse he crushed the rebels at Bothwell Bridge on the Clyde, not far from Glasgow. But he was naturally not inclined to be severe, and so was recalled. The Duke of York was sent in his place, and by hanging, and even, it is said, torture, tried to stamp out all resistance. Claverhouse with his troopers ranged the country, seizing and executing the unhappy victims. He was a strong Royalist, and regarded the Covenanters as rebels and murderers. The trouble continued for some years. The most obstinate rebels were an extreme sect called Cameronians, from the name of their leader. More than once they rose in arms, only to be beaten, but never crushed. The Earl of Argyll, who had been more Royalist than his unfortunate father, and had assisted at one time in putting down the Covenanters, opposed the Duke of York's harsh rule. He was condemned for treason, but escaped abroad to Holland.

The Fight over the Exclusion Bill. Whigs and Tories.—For two years the fight over the Exclusion Bill raged. A new Parliament had been summoned, in which the Country Party again got a majority. So Charles, by the advice of his ministers, put off summoning Parliament. The Country Party petitioned the King to summon it, and their opponents sent in counter-petitions declaring their loyalty. The Duke of Monmouth had been sent abroad by the King after his return from Scotland; but he soon came back, and made a sort of royal progress through the counties, and was received with great enthusiasm. He was known as the "Protestant Duke." Charles ordered him to leave the country, but when he refused he merely forbade him to come to Court.

It was at this time that the two political parties first obtained the names of "Whig" and "Tory." "Whig" was short for Whiggamore, a nickname for the Covenanters; "Tory" was the name of the Irish outlaws. Thus the

Loyalists said the Country Party was no better than Covenanters; and the Country Party retorted that the Loyalists were as bad as Roman Catholic Irish outlaws. In course of time these abusive nicknames became the ordinary party names. In the nineteenth century they were changed to Liberal and Conservative; but Tory is still often used for Conservative.

The Oxford Parliament. Collapse of the Whigs, 1681.—The Parliament was at last summoned in the spring of 1680. The Exclusion Bill was passed by the Commons, but thrown out by the Lords by two to one. After a good deal more wrangling Charles dissolved this Parliament, and tried another; but the Whigs again were in a majority. Charles, however, felt that really he had a strong party in the nation on his side; the excitement from the Popish Plot had died down. He summoned the Parliament to Oxford to be away from the London mob.

The Whig members assembled in a very threatening mood, and many of them rode into Oxford at the head of their armed retainers. They thought they could force the King to give way; and it looked like the beginning of a civil war. But Charles had a promise of more money from Louis, so he immediately dissolved this Parliament too. The Whigs, utterly confounded, were seized with panic, and fled home as quickly as possible. Shaftesbury and the Whigs had overreached themselves, and had turned the country against them from fear of a civil war. Charles had won the day in the fight over the Exclusion Bill. For the rest of his reign he did as he liked. In defiance of the Test Act, he put the Duke of York again over the navy, and appointed Roman Catholic officers to the army.

The Rye House Plot, 1682.—The Earl of Shaftesbury was tried for treason, but acquitted by a Whig jury of London. He tried to stir up an insurrection; but the Whig leaders would not support him, so he fled abroad in 1682, and died the next year. That year some reckless Whigs made a plot to murder Charles and the Duke of York.

The King used to go to Newmarket in the spring for the horse-racing. On the road thither in Hertfordshire the chief conspirator had a farm called the Rye House. Here, as the King was driving back to London, his carriage was to be stopped by a cart overturned on the road, and fired at

Charles II., in royal robes.

from behind the hedges. So the plot was called the Rye House Plot. It failed, because the King returned a week early. The plot was afterwards betrayed; some of the conspirators were tried and executed, but the leader escaped to Holland. Then the government brought to trial some

of the Whig leaders. The chief was Lord William Russell. His father, the Earl of Bedford, had been on the Parliament side in the Civil War; and ever since the Russells have been on the Whig side. Lord William knew nothing of the Rye House Plot, though he had discussed insurrection with Shaftesbury. One of his colleagues gave evidence against him. He and another leading Whig were condemned and executed; he could have saved his life by declaring his belief in Divine Right. Monmouth lay in hiding till pardoned; but Charles, not trusting him, banished him again to Holland.

Death of Charles II.—Charles never summoned another Parliament. The question was being discussed when, at the beginning of 1685, he had a stroke, and died a few days later, at the age of fifty-four. Even at the last he did not lose his gay geniality; we are told that he apologised for the trouble he gave by being so long dying. But he showed his real religious faith. For he refused the ministrations of the Archbishop of Canterbury; and finally the Duke of York brought in a Roman Catholic priest, who gave the dying King the last rites of his Church.

More Settlement in America.—Besides the conquest of the New Netherlands, the British made other advances in America at this time. Early in the reign a settlement was made south of Virginia called Carolina (from *Carolus*, the Latin of Charles), with Charlestown for its capital. Next a "Hudson Bay Company" was started in the far north to trade with the Indians in furs. Stations were planted on the west shore of the bay, which ships visited for a short time in the summer, when it was clear of ice. Foxes, wolves, beavers, bears, and otters provided the fur. Prince Rupert took great interest in the Company, and its territory was called Rupert's Land. It was the beginning of what is now called the North-West Territory.

Then near the end of the reign came the foundation of the Quaker colony of Pennsylvania. There was a Quaker named Penn, a rich man, the son of a Commonwealth

admiral, and, strange to say, a friend of the Duke of York. The Duke obtained for him from Charles II. a charter to found a colony south of New York where Quakers might live free from persecution. Charles suggested the name Pennsylvania, which means "Penn's forest country" (from the Latin "silva" or "sylva," a forest). Penn called his town Philadelphia, a Greek word meaning "brotherly love," and the name of one of the Seven Churches in the Book of Revelation. He started with a hundred settlers, and joined some Dutch and Germans already in the district. His colony prospered, and by the end of the century had over twenty thousand colonists of various sects, many of them German Protestants and French Huguenots.

SUMMARY.

Dissoluteness of Charles II. and his Court; the hatred of Puritanism —The old government and Church restored—Execution of regicides—Beginning of the modern army—The Savoy Conference; laws against Dissenters—Scotland and Ireland—Dunkirk sold and Bombay acquired—The second Dutch war; New York—Plague and fire of London—The Dutch in the Thames—The Cavalier Parliament and Clarendon; his fall.

Charles II. a secret Roman Catholic; his intention to convert England—Greatness of France under Louis XIV.; his enmity against the Dutch—Secret Treaty; Third Dutch war and Declaration of Indulgence—Parliament passes the Test Act; Charles drops his religious policy and makes peace with the Dutch—The Prince of Orange and the coalition against France; he marries Mary—The Popish Plot—The Habeas Corpus Act and the Exclusion Bill—Fierce party struggles; Whigs and Tories—Persecution of Covenanters in Scotland—The Duke of Monmouth —Triumph of Charles—The Rye House Plot—More settlement in America.

DATES.

1665. The Plague.
1666. The Fire of London.
1678. The Popish Plot.

CHAPTER XLIV

James II., 1685-1688
The Revolution

The Duke of York succeeds without opposition. He promises to maintain the Church.—James II., the Duke of York, was a little over fifty, four years younger than his brother, when he succeeded him. He was very different from Charles II., much less clever and much more honest; he had none of Charles's geniality and wit, and so was never personally popular. "They will never kill me, Jamie, to make you King," Charles II. said jestingly one day, when James pointed out the danger of his walking in London without guards. He had been a good head of the navy, and had shown courage in battle.

England now, for the first time since the end of the Reformation, had a Roman Catholic sovereign. But as the Queen, Mary of Modena, had still no living child, the nation put up with James, in the hope that the Protestant Princess of Orange would one day succeed. James on his accession declared his intention of preserving the Church and State as established. He soon summoned a Parliament to grant him his revenue. It was strongly Tory—for the Whigs were still unpopular—and it granted him a revenue for life still larger than that of Charles II., so he had no need to humble himself before Louis XIV. for money.

Punishment of Titus Oates.—One man suffered from the accession of James II.; that was the wretched Titus Oates. He was tried and convicted of perjury, placed in the pillory at Westminster and in the city, and flogged twice through

the streets till the blood ran down his back. Then he was put into the darkest dungeon in Newgate prison.

Rebellion of Monmouth, 1685.—Though there were no signs of opposition to James II. in England, the Duke of Monmouth and the Earl of Argyll, and the other exiles in

The Duke of Monmouth. By Sir Peter Lely.
He is wearing a sort of fancy dress.

Holland, began to plot an invasion. Argyll started first, and landed in the west of Scotland, but was soon captured and, like his father, executed. Monmouth landed in June at Lyme Regis in Dorsetshire. He expected that the Whigs would all rise for him. The common people flocked

to him, especially the miners of the Mendips ; and he was enthusiastically received at Taunton and Bridgewater. But the gentry held aloof. The militia were called out, and an army of three thousand regulars advanced against him. The general was incompetent ; but his second in command was Lord Churchill, afterwards the great Duke of Marlborough, who had learnt the art of war, fighting in the French army against the Dutch.

The battle took place on Sedgemoor, a marshy tract on the coast near Bridgewater. Monmouth tried to surprise the royal army in the early morning. But when he had nearly reached it he was stopped by one of the great ditches, which had been made to drain the marsh. A gun went off by accident, and gave the alarm. Churchill formed up the troops while the general was still in bed. The rebels stood for some time under a heavy fire of musketry and cannons from the other side of the ditch. Then the royal cavalry, which was encamped some way off, came up and charged them, and at last they broke and fled. Monmouth rode off, leaving his men to their fate. He tried to reach a Sussex port, but was caught some days afterwards in a ditch in the New Forest.

Execution of Monmouth, and the Bloody Assize.—In vain the wretched young man humbled himself before his uncle in hope of pardon, weeping, and protesting that he had been led astray by wicked men. James remained pitiless ; and Monmouth was executed. His unfortunate followers were hunted down by the brutal Kirke, colonel of a regiment which had originally been raised to garrison Tangier, "Kirke's Lambs" as it was called, because its badge was the Paschal Lamb. Many were hanged without trial ; the other prisoners were brought up at the Assizes. The presiding judge was Jeffreys, who bullied the juries, and savagely abused the prisoners, frightening many into pleading guilty. Hundreds were hanged, gallows being set up along the roads ; and hundreds more were sent off to the West Indian plantations. Even women

suffered: a poor woman was burnt for concealing a rebel; and an aged lady, Alice Lisle, widow of an old Cromwellian officer, was beheaded on the same charge. For his services in the "Bloody Assize," as it was called, Jeffreys was promoted to be Chancellor.

James tries to introduce Roman Catholicism.—The victory over the rebels tempted James to listen to the Jesuits, one of whom was his confessor, and revive the attack on Protestantism, of which Charles II. had seen the folly. This was the fatal mistake which cost him his throne. For it turned the moderate men against him, especially one of his ministers, the Marquis of Halifax, the most respected man of the day. Halifax disliked the extreme ideas of both parties, and had become a minister at the end of Charles II.'s reign by taking the lead against the Exclusion Bill.

The Court was now crowded with Roman Catholics, and many were made officers in the army in defiance of the Test Act. James professed his only wish was to give freedom to the Roman Catholics. It was an unfortunate time to do so. This very year Louis XIV. issued a decree abolishing the "Edict of Nantes," by which Henry IV., a century before, had granted freedom of worship to the Huguenots. So the Protestants were in great alarm; and when Parliament met at the end of the year the Commons refused to repeal the Test Act, and protested, though only by a majority of one, against James's disregard of it. James put an end to the session of Parliament, and never summoned it again, dissolving it two years later.

The Huguenots in France were cruelly persecuted, and numbers of them, at least two hundred thousand, left France during the following years for England and other countries. There are to-day many families in England whose French surnames show their Huguenot descent. Many were persons of high distinction; of one, the great soldier, Marshal Schomberg, you will read later. The great majority were skilful and industrious workers in silk-

weaving and other trades. It was now that silk-weaving was started in England, which thus gained by the emigration, while the loss to France was very great.

James's reckless Conduct. The Army at Hounslow.—

James II.

James, not being clever like Charles II., went on his way blindly. He obtained a decision from a majority of the judges that he had the right to disregard the Test Act. The judges, it must be remembered, could be dismissed in those

days if they displeased the King. He now began to appoint Roman Catholic magistrates throughout the country, many of them men of no position, and made a Roman Catholic Chancellor.

To strengthen himself, he raised several new regiments, for which Monmouth's rebellion was an excuse, and set up a camp of twelve thousand men on Hounslow Heath to overawe London. Worse still, he sent over to Ireland first as commander-in-chief, and then as Deputy, an Irish Cavalier of notoriously evil life, "Dick" Talbot, whom he made Earl of Tyrconnell. He turned all the Protestants out of the Irish army, so that James could absolutely trust it. The Protestants were so much alarmed that many fled over to England.

James also tried to convert his ministers; some pretended to turn Roman Catholic, others were dismissed. There was a story at the time that he also tried to convert Colonel Kirke, who replied, "I am sorry, but I am already engaged; for I have promised the King of Morocco that, if ever I change my religion, I will turn Mohammedan." He was equally unsuccessful with the common soldiers at Hounslow. Rough, irreligious men as they were, drawn from the lowest classes, they still had the national hatred of "Popery and Wooden Shoes."

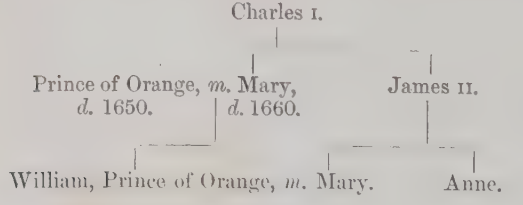
James and the Church.—Ever since the civil troubles had begun in England, the Church, at least the High Church Party, with its belief in Divine Right, had stood loyally by the throne. Now it too began to suffer. James set up a new Court of High Commission, composed of three submissive bishops and some judges, with Jeffreys at its head. Clergymen considered disloyal were punished; among them Compton, Bishop of London, who had stood up for the Test Act, lost his see. James also forced a Roman Catholic, as head, on an Oxford college, contrary to law, and deprived the Vice-Chancellor of Cambridge of his post for refusing to give a degree to a monk.

At the same time he tried to win over the Dissenters to

his side by issuing the "Declaration of Indulgence." But they saw through his designs, and were not to be caught.

England's only hope; the Prince of Orange.—By the end of the third year of his reign James, by his reckless conduct, had turned nearly the whole nation against him. The most loyal Tories and Churchmen were in great distress and perplexity. Evelyn, who was one of them, writes in his diary: "The Lord Jesus defend his little flock, and preserve this threatened Church and nation." As a Loyalist, he puts all the blame on the Jesuits, who "compel Princes to violent courses, and destruction of an excellent government both in Church and State."

The leading men of the country felt that something must be done. A rebellion was hopeless owing to James's army. The only hope was that the Prince of Orange, who had an army, might be persuaded to interfere in the interest of the Princess Mary. So they wrote secretly to him.



The Prince had been friendly with his father-in-law; he had, of course, been against Monmouth and the Exclusion Bill; he would have stopped Monmouth's expedition, if he had had the power. But, as Mary's husband and Protestant champion, he could not approve of James's proceedings. Moreover, he was planning another alliance against Louis XIV., and wanted England on his side. So he said he would bring over his army, but he must have a proper invitation, signed by leading men of both parties.

1688. The Bishops' Petition against the Declaration of Indulgence, April.—When, therefore, the memorable year 1688 began, James, without being the least aware, was

in a dangerous position. Two events brought things to a head. Firstly, in April James reissued the Declaration of Indulgence, and ordered it to be read on two Sundays in all churches. This at last goaded the long-suffering Church into resistance. Sancroft, the High Church Archbishop of Canterbury; Ken, Bishop of Bath and Wells, the author of the well-known *Morning and Evening Hymns*; and five other bishops signed a petition to the King begging to be excused reading the Declaration, because it was illegal.

When the bishops came with their petition James told them angrily that they would suffer for their disobedience; to which they replied, "God's will be done."

The Declaration was read in four churches in London, and about two hundred in the country. In most cases the congregations walked out. James, after some hesitation, had the seven bishops sent to trial. They were brought by the river to the Tower, and as they landed crowds of people welcomed them, kneeling for their blessing, and praying for their deliverance.

Birth of a Prince, June.—Secondly, two days later, on June 10, a prince was born; so there was now a Roman Catholic heir. The Whigs at once started a story that he was not really the Queen's son, but a strange child smuggled into the palace; and nine-tenths of the people believed it.

Trial and Acquittal of the seven Bishops.—At the end of June the trial of the bishops took place. On this occasion the judges on the bench seemed more afraid of public opinion than of the King; for among the spectators were many peers, including Lord Halifax. The jury retired at six in the evening to consider their verdict; at first three were for condemnation, finally only one, who was the King's brewer. All night long the struggle went on; the jury were without food or lights. At six in the morning the brewer gave in.

At nine the Court met again. It was crowded with people, as was Westminster Hall and the space in front; for the Law Courts used to be at Westminster, adjoining

The seven bishops on their way to the Tower.

the Hall. When the verdict of acquittal was announced, Lord Halifax jumped up and waved his hat; there was a shout in the Court, which was repeated in the Hall and then outside. Horsemen at once rode off to carry the news far and wide, and the church bells were set ringing. The jurymen could hardly make their way through Westminster Hall owing to the numbers who wished to shake their hands. When the bishops came out they were so overwhelmed by the crowds that they had to take refuge in a church, while the prosecuting lawyers were hooted.

That night bonfires were lit, effigies of the Pope were burnt, and windows were illuminated with seven candles, a tall one in the middle representing the Archbishop. James received the news when visiting the camp at Hounslow. When he had started back he heard shouting in the camp. "What is that?" he said. "Oh! nothing," he was told; "only the soldiers cheering the acquittal of the bishops." "Do you call that nothing?" he said angrily. He revenged himself by dismissing two of the judges.

The Invitation sent to the Prince of Orange, June.—The night of the acquittal the invitation was sent to the Prince, signed with seven names representing Whigs, Tories, the Church, Army, and Navy. Among them were the Earl of Danby, Bishop Compton, and Admiral Russell, cousin of Lord William. It was conveyed by a Whig admiral, who had been dismissed by James, Sir Edward Herbert, disguised as a common sailor. Lord Halifax knew of the invitation, but would not go so far as to sign it. Many officers of the army and navy promised to join the Prince after his landing. So well was the secret kept that James suspected nothing. By August it began to be whispered about in London that something would happen soon. James was also warned by Louis, who heard of the preparations which the Prince of Orange was making for an expedition. But James would not believe the warning, and refused Louis's offer of help so contemptuously that he

left him to his fate, and as the European war was breaking out sent his troops against Germany. This was lucky for the Prince, as a French invasion would have upset his plans.

James brings over Irish Troops. Lillibullero.—In September came positive news from the English Ambassador in Holland which James could not disbelieve. He at last saw the danger of his position, and tried, too late, to retrace his steps. He restored Bishop Compton, the Protestant fellows at Oxford, and the Protestant magistrates. At the same time he manned the fleet, and reinforced the army with regiments from Scotland and Ireland. The Irish did his cause more harm than good. The English had not forgotten the massacre of 1641, and hated them as mere savages; and some did behave as such, robbing and murdering in the neighbourhood of their camp.

People began to express their feelings against the Irish by whistling a song called Lillibullero, which had been written by a witty Whig peer, when Tyrconnell had been made Deputy of Ireland. It was an imaginary conversation between two Irish rebels about the new Deputy, who

> "is de Talbote,
> And he will cut de Englishman's troate."

Its name came from the refrain, said to have been the warcry of the Irish in 1641, "Lero, lero lillibullero, lero, lero, bullen-a-la." The tune was by the great composer Purcell. Soon every one was whistling Lillibullero, and it became a sort of Protestant watchword, and a sign of being for the Prince of Orange. "It was a foolish ballad," a writer of the time says, "which made an impression not to be imagined but by those who saw it." In fact, the author declared afterwards that he had whistled James off his throne.

The Expedition sails, October.—In October the Prince of Orange issued a declaration setting forth James's misdeeds, and stating that he was coming to protect the freedom of England and the Protestant religion.

After one unsuccessful attempt, when a westerly gale drove it back with some loss, the expedition sailed at the end of the month with an easterly wind, the "Protestant wind" for which people were praying. It consisted of fifty warships, and five hundred transports carrying fifteen thousand men. Admiral Herbert was in command; and in the army were three regiments of Englishmen and three of Scotsmen in the Dutch service.

The English fleet ought to have attacked the expedition on the Dutch coast. But many of the officers were for the Prince, and they persuaded the admiral, who was himself loyal, to lie in the Thames mouth near Harwich. And with the east wind the fleet could not get out. This was another piece of good fortune for the Prince, for a battle between the fleets would have excited the patriotism of the English.

Landing of the Prince of Orange at Torbay, November 5.—On November 3rd the fleet passed the Straits of Dover, spreading almost from shore to shore. On the 5th, Gunpowder Plot Day, it anchored in Torbay, which was sheltered and undefended; and the Prince landed at the little fishing town of Brixham, where there is a monument commemorating the event; and his memory still lingers among the fishermen, who call him, in their ignorance of history, "William the Conqueror." Some days later the English fleet approached, but a gale from the west drove it back to Portsmouth.

At the head of his army, the Prince rode into Exeter. On his banner were the words, "The Protestant religion and the liberties of England." The bishop and magistrates fled, but the citizens received him with the wildest delight. Here a halt was made to wait for adherents. For some days, to the disappointment of the Prince, no one appeared, so terrible was the memory of the Bloody Assize in the west. Then one gentleman came in, followed by others, and then gentlemen and peers from other parts of the country; and in the north the Earl of Danby and others took up arms.

Desertions from James.—The royal army took post at Salisbury, where James joined it. The Prince did not want a battle on land any more than at sea. Again he was fortunate; the only fighting was some skirmishing with the hated Irish. Soon officers began to desert to him, and at last Lord Churchill, whom James specially trusted, went over. James, in alarm, hurried back to London, and there learned that the Princess Anne had left for the north. "God help me," James exclaimed; "even my own children desert me." Anne was a great friend of Lady Churchill, and had agreed to follow Lord Churchill's example.

Disorder in London; James's flight, December.—Everywhere the country was declaring for the Prince. The Jesuits and Roman Catholics in London were flying to France. James, having no one to trust, made up his mind to go too. He first sent off the Queen and the infant Prince, who reached France safely, escorted by the fleet.

Two days later James started himself. When his flight was discovered the peers then in London, with Halifax at their head, met at the Guildhall to establish some form of authority, and sent to the Prince to come as soon as possible. London had been for some time in a state of great excitement, and that night the mob broke out and pillaged Roman Catholic houses and churches. The hated Jeffreys, who was trying to escape in disguise, was caught, and would have been torn in pieces had he not been rescued by the train-bands. He was sent by the mayor to the Tower, where he died next year. James's flight was most welcome to the Prince, who had no wish to imprison his father-in-law. But a few days later he reappeared. He had been stopped on the way by some fishermen, who thought he was a Jesuit in disguise. To frighten him away again, the Prince sent his Dutch guards to London to take the place of the English guards round Whitehall. James then agreed to go to Rochester, and a week later fled, this time successfully, to France.

The Prince of Orange enters London. The Convention, January 1689.—The Prince entered London the day after James's second departure. The houses were all decorated with orange colours, and there were bonfires and fireworks. But the Prince disliked crowds, and drove in privately through the Park. The next day deputations from the city, the lawyers, and other bodies presented addresses.

The Prince's enterprise had thus succeeded. The question was what was he to do next. Some of his followers wanted him to proclaim himself King, as conqueror. But he knew he had not "conquered" England, and summoned the Peers and the Commoners who had sat in Charles II.'s Parliaments to give him advice. They asked him to assume the government temporarily, and summon a Convention. The elections, naturally, went in favour of the Whigs; and the Convention met at the end of January 1689. What was to be done? The rightful King had left the country, and some government must be established. The Whigs said that James had abdicated his throne by his flight, and that Parliament could nominate a fresh sovereign. The Tories, who with the bishops had a majority in the Lords, believing in Divine Right, said that James was still King, and that Parliament had no power to nominate the sovereign. They proposed that the Prince should rule as regent. Danby suggested that Mary should be Queen, and the Prince rule as her husband. But the Prince stated plainly that he would not stay in England except as King, and Mary wrote from Holland that she would not be put above her husband. So it was proposed that the Prince and Mary should be King and Queen together; that is, Mary would be Queen in her own right, not merely queen-consort, as the present Queen is. William, of course, would govern, but in their two names. This was carried in the Lords by a very small majority, and so the matter was settled. In all the discussion the question of the infant Prince was not even mentioned.

The Declaration of Right. Proclamation of William and

Mary, February 1689.—The next thing was to prevent misgovernment like James's in the future. A paper was drawn up called the "Declaration of Right," and voted by both Houses of Parliament. It stated that various things done by James, such as the "dispensing" with laws, and keeping a standing army without the consent of Parliament, were illegal. Finally, it declared that no Roman Catholic could succeed to the throne; and so, as Mary had no children, if none were born to her, the succession should go to the Princess Anne and her children.

In the Banqueting Hall of Whitehall the throne was solemnly offered to the Prince and the Princess, who had arrived in London. The Prince replied that they accepted it thankfully, and would always govern by the laws of England and consult Parliament. Then they were proclaimed King and Queen amid general rejoicing.

So ended the Revolution of 1688. The Civil War had failed to settle the quarrel between King and Parliament because the execution of the King had shocked the loyalty of the people. The Revolution of 1688 settled it by peaceably putting a new King on the throne. The nation had at last established its right to be governed as it liked.

SUMMARY.

James II. promises to maintain the Church; a Tory Parliament—Monmouth's rebellion; the Bloody Assize—James tries to introduce Roman Catholicism—Parliament protests—The army at Hounslow—Attack on the Church—Secret appeal to the Prince of Orange.

The Declaration of Indulgence and trial of the seven bishops—The birth of a Prince—Invitation sent to the Prince of Orange—James brings over Irish soldiers—Landing of the Prince—Desertions from James—His flight—The Convention; discussions as to the throne—The Prince and Princess made joint King and Queen—The Declaration of Right.

DATE.

1688, November 5. Landing of the Prince of Orange.

CHAPTER XLV

The Stuart Days

The Stuart line lasted for a quarter of a century after James II.'s flight. But Mary and Anne were not regarded as rightful sovereigns by the Jacobites, so the real days of the Stuart rule may be considered to have come to an end. It had been a time of great doings and strange turns of fortune, and at its close England was ready to start on its career of a free and imperial State. The great question of the government proved to be settled, and the oversea empire had been begun by the founding of the English colonies in America and the settlement of the East India Company in India. In other ways, too, we find ourselves arriving at Modern Times, just as we left the Middle Ages when the Tudors came in. There was now a regular army and navy, as two separate services. The proper study of science, to which we owe such wonderful discoveries and useful inventions, was now fairly started. And many features of modern life—the post, public travelling conveyances, and newspapers—appeared.

The Army.—Besides the establishment of a standing army in England, the method of fighting was changed in Charles II.'s reign by the French invention of the bayonet, so called from Bayonne, where it was first made. By having a bayonet to fix on his gun the musketeer became also a pikeman ; and the modern infantry soldier took the place of the musketeers and pikemen. This invention was possible, because the gun had become lighter. Just after this period, too, the "flint-lock" was invented, by which

the musket was fired by a flint affixed to the cock instead of by a match ; this lasted till the middle of the nineteenth century.

At the same time armour was given up, except that the cavalry wore breastplates. The improvement of firearms made it useless against them ; and lightness for marching had become very important. It was, however, still the fashion to paint portraits in the armour of the Civil War. The British scarlet now appeared as the uniform (that is, the uniform colour) of the army. In the Civil War each regiment had its own colour. Cromwell's Ironsides had worn scarlet ; and it was the colour of the royal livery.

Fighting was now a distinct profession. The old feudal arrangement, by which men held land on condition of fighting for the King, had quite died out. Still the army was considered the right profession for a gentleman, and young nobles generally entered it, or, as formerly, saw fighting in foreign armies.

The Navy.—In the Dutch wars you have seen that the admirals were mostly soldiers, "sea generals" as they were called. Generally the commanders of the ships were soldiers, or even incompetent men of rank, appointed by Court favour. There was great jealousy between them and the real sea officers, men who had risen from the ranks or served in the merchant service, who were called "tarpaulins," from the sailors' tarpaulin hats. But gentlemen were beginning to take to the navy as a profession, entering it as boys under some relative, with the pay of a common sailor. Then the Duke of York, when at the head of the navy, ordered that every ship should carry a gentleman volunteer, who must have been seven years at sea. This is the origin of the midshipman. There was no school for naval cadets in England till the nineteenth century ; even Nelson started as a boy. But Louis XIV., who was strengthening his navy, started such a school in France.

Both the size and number of the ships had greatly increased. The *Sovereign of the Seas*, built by Charles I.

with the ship money, was nearly twice as large as Elizabeth's biggest ship. She was the first three-decker, mounting a hundred guns, as many as Nelson's *Victory*. James II.'s *Britannia* was still bigger, nearly as big as the *Victory*. The fleet of battleships at the Revolution numbered about a hundred, with some seventy smaller ships, cruisers, sloops, and fire-ships. The great majority of the battleships were two-deckers, mounting sixty or seventy guns. The shape of the ships was also improved, as you can see in the picture on p. 620, and they had three masts instead of four. But they were still unfit to stand bad weather; sea-fighting took place usually only in the summer.

Science. Sir Francis Bacon. Kepler and Galileo.—The great advance in science in England came from Sir Francis Bacon, James I.'s unfortunate chancellor, who, whatever were his faults as a judge, was one of our greatest writers and thinkers. He saw how necessary for real scientific knowledge is the accurate study of facts, especially by experiments, and he wrote a book to explain this method which has ever since been followed. He did not actually invent it. Copernicus had used it when he discovered that the earth went round the sun; and the German Kepler and the Italian Galileo were carrying his discovery further, when Bacon was writing. Galileo made the first astronomical telescope, having heard of the invention of a telescope by a Dutch spectacle maker, and immediately discovered the moons of Jupiter. In his old age Galileo was imprisoned by the Italian Inquisition, and forced to recant publicly his teaching that the earth goes round the sun. He is said to have muttered at the same time, "And yet it moves."

In England during the Civil War some scientific men formed themselves into a society; and after the Restoration Charles II., who was fond of science, joined the society, and gave it a charter under the name of the "Royal Society," which still leads scientific thought in England. Its

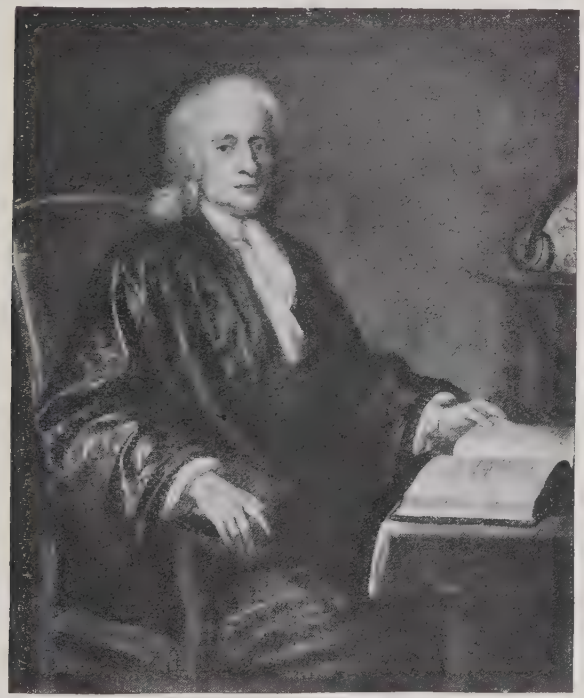
members are called "Fellows of the Royal Society," and put the initials F.R.S. after their names.

Sir Isaac Newton and Halley.—One of the early fellows of the Royal Society was Isaac Newton. He was the son of

Sir Francis Bacon, in his Chancellor's robes.

a farmer of Lincolnshire, and was educated at the neighbouring Grammar School of Grantham. He showed such talent for mathematics that he was sent to Trinity College, Cambridge. He became a scholar and fellow of the College. At the beginning of his career he made great advances in mathematics, outstripping his teacher, who was considered

the first mathematician of his day. When he was twenty-seven his teacher resigned his professorship to him. Before that he had already made the great discovery attached to his name. Seeing one day, when at home, an apple fall



Sir Isaac Newton, in his University gown.
Notice that, contrary to the custom of his time, he does not wear a wig.

to the ground, the idea struck him that the force which made it fall, known as "gravitation," might also be the force which keeps the moon going round the earth, and the earth and the planets going round the sun, in fact, holds the solar system together. It took him many years to prove this; and it was not till the reign of James II. that

he published the first volume of his book. It was written in Latin, as scientific books were in those days, and was called *Principia*, that is, *Principles*, and it explained all about the orbits of the planets. In bringing out the book he was helped by a young astronomer named Halley. Halley is famous for proving that a comet, which was seen in 1682, came regularly about every seventy-five years. It came again, as he had predicted, some years after his death, and so is known as "Halley's Comet." Its last appearance, in 1910, was very disappointing, as it was hardly visible in England.

In the midst of his studies, Newton occasionally took part in public affairs. He was one of a deputation from Cambridge which was sent to London to protest against James II.'s appointment of a Roman Catholic fellow; but the only result was that the deputation was browbeaten by Jeffreys and sent about its business. Then he was elected one of the members of the University in the Convention after James's flight; and he sent to the Vice-Chancellor a copy of the proclamation of the new King and Queen, remarking that he hoped there would be no trouble in proclaiming them at Cambridge.

Newton's chief scientific work was done before the Revolution; but he lived long afterwards. More than once again he was member for his University. Queen Anne made him a knight. He died at the age of eighty-five, in the last year of George I.'s reign, and was buried in Westminster Abbey.

Public Coaches and Roads.—In the reign of Charles I. the first public conveyances appeared in the streets of London; they were clumsy vehicles drawn by two horses, one of which the driver rode. The novelty was much disliked at first; it interfered with the earnings of the Thames watermen. Also, as the streets were narrow, it inconvenienced people walking; so the "hackney coaches," as they were called, were not allowed to go more than three miles an hour. The number was limited by law; by Charles II.'s

reign it had grown to four hundred. Towards the end of the Commonwealth "stage coaches" began to run from London three days a week along the North Road to York, and the Western Road to Salisbury. They had six horses, and travelled very slowly, for the roads were extremely bad. In 1663 "toll-gates" were introduced, at which all vehicles had to pay; and the money was used to improve the roads. The number and speed of the coaches increased; "flying coaches" did what was thought the wonderful distance of fifty miles a day.

The Post.—For some time there had been a post for government correspondence to Scotland, and to the

A carriage of Charles II.'s reign.

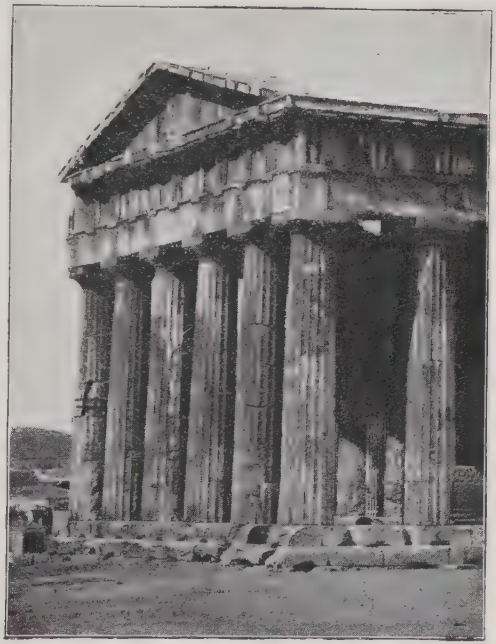
Continent by Dover; and merchants and private persons could use it. It was called the 'post," because of the posts or stopping-places along the road where the carrier changed horses. But it was slow and irregular. Owing to complaints, Charles I. had it put on a regular system, and then added other posts to Ireland and the east and west coasts. The letter bags were carried by a mounted post-boy, who announced his approach to each post with his horn. The lowest charge for a letter was 2d. up to eighty miles. But after the Restoration members of the two Houses of Parliament were allowed to send letters, either their own or their friends', free; they "franked" the letters, that is, made them free, by signing their names on the outside, where the address was. There were no

envelopes in those days; a letter was written on a large sheet, and then folded up and sealed.

The first Newspapers.—Men of position, when on their country estates, used to arrange with some one in London to send them the news from time to time. So the profession of news-writer arose; a news-writer would have a long list of customers to whom he sent his news. The next step was when these "news-letters" were printed and sold publicly. Then news-letters were published, telling people what was happening in various foreign countries. Finally, towards the end of James I.'s reign, these news-letters began to be published regularly once a week. The earliest, of which copies still exist, *The Weekly News from Germany, Italy, etc.*, and *The Certain News of the Week*, were first published in 1622. The meeting of the Long Parliament naturally increased the desire for news, and soon a weekly account of events in Parliament was published. In the Civil War both sides published newspapers giving their version of events, the Royalists from Oxford and the Parliament from London.

In those days everything printed had to be licensed by government; that was why people who wrote against the Court could be punished by the Star Chamber. Cromwell only allowed two newspapers, which under Charles II. became the *London Gazette*, published twice a week. It was a government newspaper, only giving such news as suited the government. It has existed ever since, but it is now hardly a newspaper; it only contains official information, such as royal proclamations, government orders, appointments, army and navy promotions, and the like, which are copied into other papers. A few other papers were also allowed; but the country had to rely for its news mainly on the old news-letters. The first newspapers were very small affairs, generally about one sheet, containing little besides actual news. Advertisements began to appear under the Commonwealth. The commonest name for newspapers was "Mercury," for

Mercury in the Roman religion was the messenger of the gods. There are still some provincial newspapers called "Mercury," as the *Leeds Mercury*. "Gazette," which is now the name of several papers, is the Italian word "Gazetta," the origin of which is uncertain.



Front of the Temple of Theseus at Athens.

Architecture. The Classical Style.—In James I.'s reign an entirely new style of building came in. It arose among the Italians. So great was their admiration of everything old that, besides studying the Greek writings, they also revived their architecture, and gave up the Gothic, which they considered barbarous; that is why it was now called "Gothic," because the Goths were the

chief barbarian tribe that overthrew the old Roman Empire. The Italians were great builders; even in the Middle Ages they built great stone palaces in the old-Roman fashion, far grander than the Tudor St. James's. If you compare this picture of a Greek temple with the picture of St. Paul's Cathedral, which was imitated from St. Peter's at Rome, you will see the Greek columns and porch reproduced; the rounded windows, like the old Norman ones, and the great dome are Roman. St. Paul's is stately and massive, but not so beautiful as the old Gothic cathedrals with their carving and statues, their pointed windows and delicate tracery, and their tall spires, which seem to lead our thoughts up to heaven. And some people think the giving up of the Gothic shows that there was a falling off of religious feeling. Moreover, though the old Greek temples, which were built of marble, must have looked very beautiful in the clear southern skies, stone buildings in the same style are not so suitable to our duller skies. However, the new style was then thought perfect, and called "Classical," because it came from the Greeks and Romans; in England it was also called "Italian."

There was not much building in the Italian style in James I.'s reign, except by one architect, called Inigo Jones, who had studied in Italy. He planned the entire rebuilding of the palace of Whitehall, which was still the chief royal palace, and occupied with its grounds the whole space between the present road called Whitehall and the Thames. It was to have been the finest palace in Europe; but the only part finished was the Banqueting Hall (shown on p. 580), from which Charles I. was led to the scaffold. It still remains, and is now the museum of the United Service Institution, which has added buildings not shown in the picture. Then after the fire of London, Sir Christopher Wren used the Classical Style in rebuilding St. Paul's and the London churches.

From this time, for about a hundred and fifty years,

St Paul's at the present day.

all town churches were built in this style, and most public buildings. In noblemen's houses the English style was kept up; but in Hatfield House, built by the Earl of Salisbury early in James I.'s reign, you can see in the centre an arcade of Greek columns. Ordinary town houses, built after the fire of London, were rather plain brick structures. In great houses, like Hatfield, the interior was very grandly decorated with fine stair-

Hatfield House.

Hatfield was given to the Earl of Salisbury by James I. in exchange for another estate. Part of the old palace, in which Elizabeth lived before she was Queen, is now used as stables.

cases, ceilings, and fireplaces. The great hall was still the centre of the house, but for a long time there had been separate dining-rooms. Windows were square, with stone divisions. Large panes of glass were very expensive, so small diamond-shaped pieces were used, joined together by lead. At the present day you may see glass of this sort in old cottages.

Introduction of Tea, Coffee, and Cocoa.—People still

had the same drink, mostly beer or wine, at all meals. But during the Commonwealth tea, coffee, and cocoa, or chocolate, were all introduced into England. For a long time they were very expensive, and only drunk as a luxury by the well-to-do, and not at regular meals. Cocoa came first into Europe. It was introduced into Spain from America by Columbus.

Coffee is first heard of as the national drink of the

Hall of Hatfield House.

Mohammedans of Arabia, the only country where it was at this time grown. The Turks brought it to Europe; and there were coffee-houses in Constantinople in the middle of our Tudor times. At the beginning of the Commonwealth an English merchant trading with Turkey brought it to London. He found his friends so fond of it that he made a Greek servant of his start a coffee-house in 1652. Numbers of coffee-houses soon sprang up; a few years later we hear of chocolate also being sold in them. Coffee-houses became the regular after-

noon resort of gentlemen, who discussed politics and the news of the day over their coffee.

Tea was the national drink of the Chinese; in their language it is "tsha." They say it was introduced by an emperor who lived more than two thousand years before Christ. The first Europeans to adopt it were the Dutch traders in the East, and next the English traders. The first mention of it in England is in 1658 (the year of Cromwell's death), where a coffee-house near the Royal Exchange advertises "That excellent and by all physicians approved China drink, called by the Chineans Tsha, by other nations Tay, alias Tee." In the famous diary of Pepys we read, in the Restoration year, that he sent for "a cup of Tee, a China drink, that I had never drunk before." A few years later we read of his wife making tea, which had been recommended by her apothecary as good for colds. Many people objected to this new tea-drinking. One gentleman, writing to his uncle, expresses his disgust that some people "call for tea after dinner instead of pipes and beer, a base Indian practice"; he is glad that his uncle's "most Christian family" do not allow it.

Dress. The Modern Coat. Wigs.—Men's dress, rich as it still was in colour and ornament, was becoming still more modern. By Charles I.'s reign a gentleman wore a broad collar, often of lace, instead of the ruff; a loose-sleeved jacket instead of the tight tunic; and knee-breeches, rather loose, instead of puffed knickerbockers. Low top-boots with very broad tops were worn out of doors. The cuffs, ends of the knee-breeches, and tops of the boots were adorned with lace. The hats were broad-brimmed, rather high-crowned Spanish beavers, with a large feather and often jewels in the band. The hair was worn long—by the Cavaliers in very long curls; beards, if worn, were pointed. Puritan gentlemen showed their dislike of luxury by simpler dressing and quieter colours. Cromwell, at the meeting of the Long Parliament, is described as being

very ordinarily apparelled, in a plain cloth suit, with plain linen, and not very clean; his hat had no band; he had a sword, like all gentlemen of the day.

A Cavalier. From a portrait by Vandyck.

After the Restoration the coat was worn longer, with skirts, reaching to the knee, and a waistcoat, much longer than at present. This was practically the modern coat and waistcoat. At the same time, the strange custom

of wearing wigs came in from abroad, and lasted about a century and a half; at this time they were curled, and reached below the shoulder, as you can see in the portraits. In France they were called "Perruques," which became in English "periwigs," and then simply "wigs." Clean-shaving came in again, and lasted till the end of the next

Harvesting.

Showing the dress of the lower orders at the time of the Commonwealth. From Loggan's *Cantabrigia Illustrata.*

century. Ladies wore their hair in little curls. Their dress was simpler and more graceful than in Elizabethan times; the "farthingale" went out in James I.'s reign, but the skirts were fuller than at the present day. Out of doors, women of all classes wore a hood or a broad-brimmed hat like a man's.

London. Hyde Park and St. James's Park.—In London, besides its continued extension outside the walls, and its rebuilding after the fire, Hyde Park and St. James's Park appear as modern features. Hyde Park, a hunting-ground of Henry VIII., was thrown open to the citizens as a park by Charles I., and was a favourite resort for driving. Under the Commonwealth it was sold; and the buyer charged for admission, to the great annoyance of the citizens. After the Restoration it was again thrown open.

St. James's Park was laid out by Charles II. While an exile in Holland he had seen the gardens there, for which the Dutch were very famous. Dutch gardens were laid out very straight and formal; and the Park, then, had regular avenues, and a straight canal, formed by a stream, called the West Bourne, which flowed into the Thames at Westminster. Its course may be traced by Westbourne Terrace at Paddington, the Serpentine (made in the next century), and the lake in the gardens of the present Buckingham Palace. The Park was stocked with wild-fowl, as at the present day; and there was a collection of various kinds of deer, antelopes, and foreign goats and sheep, and on the south there was a walk lined with cages of foreign birds; it is now a road, but still known as "Birdcage Walk." On the north side a ground was laid out for the game of Palle-malle (Ball and Club), an Italian game, popular since James I.'s reign, in which the ball was struck by a club through a ring hung on a pole. Previously the game was played in a meadow, where the street of Pall Mall keeps up the name; and the ground in the Park is now the road called the Mall.

St. James's Park became a very popular resort. Charles II. was fond of strolling there quite unattended, playing with his pet dogs, the breed known as King Charles's spaniels, and feeding the ducks. This made him very popular with the Londoners.

Decay of Education and the Drama.—After the reign of Elizabeth the enthusiasm for learning and the old classics died down. Classics remained up to modern times the chief subject taught to boys of the upper class; but we do not hear of learned noblemen like Sir Philip Sidney. Nor do we hear of ladies learned in the ancient tongue like Elizabeth and Lady Jane Grey. Girls were taught "accomplishments," such as playing the guitar and spinet, singing and dancing, or household duties, making jam and sauces. The glory of the drama departed with Shakespeare. Even his friend, Ben Jonson, "rare old Ben" as he was called, who survived him twenty years, is very inferior. Some of the comedies produced in James I.'s and Charles I.'s reigns were so bad morally that it is not wholly surprising that the Puritans condemned acting and abolished it during the Commonwealth. After the Restoration the comedies were still worse, and the tragedies were very dull; a modern audience would be disgusted and bored by them. Women now took the female part instead of boys. For the King's company of actors the Theatre Royal, Drury Lane, was built, the first of the modern theatres. It was burnt down in the middle of Charles II.'s reign and rebuilt; it was again burnt in the beginning of the nineteenth century, when the present theatre was built.

John Milton, the great Puritan Poet.—The two great names in literature of the Stuart days are Milton and Bunyan. John Milton was the son of a lawyer of London. He was born in the sixth year of James I.'s reign, and was educated at St. Paul's School and Christ's College, Cambridge. At Cambridge he began writing poetry, both Latin and English. He was a great classical scholar, and his poetry was modelled on the classics; it is marked by the beauty and dignity of its language. Milton intended to be a clergyman; but his religious ideas were Puritan, so as Laud was now forcing his ideas on the Church he devoted himself to his poetry. This he could do, as his father was well off. For a time, too, he took pupils, starting with two nephews.

When the Commonwealth was established in 1649 Milton was made Latin Secretary to the Council of State. Correspondence between countries was still carried on in Latin. By the order of the government he wrote replies to foreign writers who had condemned the execution of Charles I. His work with his pen injured his eyes, and in 1652 he became quite blind. His poetry was written by his daughters at his dictation; and he was given an assistant in his office. After the Restoration he lived in obscurity for fourteen years.

In his chief early poem, published a little before the Civil War, Milton laments over the death of a friend drowned in a voyage from Ireland. It is called *Lycidas*, a Greek name by which he represents his friend. It is modelled very closely on the classics.

During the Commonwealth he was composing his great poem on the Fall, *Paradise Lost*, the idea of which had been many years in his mind. *Paradise Lost* is the greatest poem in the English language; it was modelled on the Greek and Roman heroic poems of Homer and Virgil, though the subject was so different. It is divided into twelve books, and is written in "blank," that is, unrhyming, verse, which was generally used for plays. The poem was published in 1667, the year that the Dutch sailed up the Thames. So little was Milton thought of in the Restoration days that he sold it for only £10. He then composed a similar poem on our Lord's Temptation, called *Paradise Regained*, but it is not equal to *Paradise Lost*.

Milton was three times married. His first wife, whom he married during the Civil War, was a Royalist; as may be imagined, the marriage was not a happy one.

John Bunyan and the "Pilgrim's Progress."—John Bunyan, the author of the *Pilgrim's Progress*, was by birth a tinker of Bedfordshire. Tinkers in those days were little better than gipsies; they roamed from village to village in pursuit of their calling, which descended from father

to son. As a young man he fought for a time in the Commonwealth army. Puritanism was strong in Bedfordshire, and Bunyan became deeply religious. At times he was strangely troubled about religion, and fancied that he had been very wicked. After the war he became a preacher in the Baptist sect, and so after the Restoration he was imprisoned in Bedford gaol. Every means was tried to make him give up preaching; his reply was, "If you let me out to-day, I will preach again to-morrow." So for years he lay in prison, which was far more horrible then than it is now; but after a time he was allowed more freedom. He read chiefly the Bible, for he knew nothing of English literature. He wrote and taught religion to his fellow-prisoners.

After twelve years the Declaration of Indulgence set Bunyan free. He had already begun his allegory of the *Pilgrim's Progress*, and six years afterwards it was finished and published. It was written for the lower classes, and was widely read by them, several editions being published. But to the world at large it was utterly unknown. In the *Pilgrim's Progress* the pilgrim Christian, laden with the burden of sin, journeys from the City of Destruction to the City of Zion, through strange perils and adventures. Some are taken from Bunyan's own experiences, such as Giant Despair, the Slough of Despond, the Valley of the Shadow of Death, and the fight with Apollyon, the Destroyer. Afterwards he wrote a second part, the pilgrimage of Christian's wife and children; and another allegory, the *Holy War*. The language is wonderful for an unlettered man; and the names are very cleverly chosen, such as Mr. Worldly-Wiseman and the Slough of Despond and Vanity Fair, which have become proverbial. Bunyan died at the age of sixty, in the year of the Revolution.

The Church had its champions as well as the Puritans. Jeremy Taylor, who was Laud's chaplain, and after the Restoration an Irish bishop, wrote *Holy Living* and *Holy*

Dying while a prisoner under the Commonwealth, and also sermons and other religious works.

Cavalier Poets. Samuel Butler and John Dryden.—There were poets among the Cavaliers who wrote chiefly love-songs, many of them very charming, especially one by the Marquis of Montrose. After the Restoration, Samuel Butler wrote a clever but savage poem ridiculing the Puritans, called *Hudibras*. The great poet now was John Dryden, who was also a dramatist. His first poem was a lament for the death of Cromwell, but his next was in celebration of the Restoration. Henceforth his pen was at the service of the Stuarts; and he was made "Poet Laureate," that is, the Court poet. His greatest poem is an attack on Shaftesbury and the Exclusion Bill, called *Absalom and Achitophel*, being taken from the story of Absalom. Monmouth, of course, was Absalom; Shaftesbury Achitophel; and Charles II. David. In James II.'s reign he wrote another poem in defence of the Church of Rome, and consequently lost his post at the Revolution. He died at the end of the century.

Colonel Hutchinson's Memoirs.—As an example of the better type of Puritan, we may take Colonel Hutchinson, whose life was written by his wife. He was born in the middle of James I.'s reign, the son of a leading country gentleman of Nottinghamshire. From his father he inherited a deeply religious and serious character. His wife, though of a Royalist family, shared his views. She writes of Mary Queen of Scots as a most wicked woman, and of the Court of James I. as disgraceful. Hutchinson did not affect the outward appearance of Puritanism; his dress, she says, was "rich," and he wore his hair long, curling into great rings. In fact, "the godly of those days would not allow him to be religious, because his hair was not in their cut, nor his words in their phrase."

During the Civil War he commanded at Nottingham, in the fighting that went on against the Royalist town of Newark. He also became a member of the House of

Commons. He was a friend of Cromwell, but saw his ambition, and warned him against it. Cromwell, however, made him one of the judges of Charles I., much against his will; and after much prayer he signed the condemnation.

After Cromwell's usurpation he took no further part in politics, busying himself with his duties as a magistrate, and educating his children. Cromwell tried hard to win him over. One day he had an interview with him in London. "Why, dear colonel," he said, "will you not come in and act among us? My one object is to restore liberty to good people." Mrs. Hutchinson writes very bitterly of Cromwell and his supporters, quite as bitterly as the Cavaliers of the Restoration. True religion, she says, was lost, and hypocrisy reigned supreme. Cromwell was a "beast," worshipped and courted. As to his wife and family, their high position suited them "as well as scarlet on apes." Henry Cromwell was a "dissolute Cavalier," Richard a mere "peasant."

After Richard's resignation Colonel Hutchinson appeared again in the restored Parliament; then that "execrable traitor," Monk, overthrew "that glorious Parliament," and brought about the Restoration. Hutchinson's high character saved him from the fate of the regicides. But three years later he was imprisoned, and died soon after of ill health brought on by confinement.

The Diary of John Evelyn.—Of the better class of Cavalier a good example is John Evelyn, whose diary has already been mentioned. He was a country gentleman of Wotton in Surrey, where he succeeded his brother late in life. He was deeply religious; but, unlike Hutchinson, his religion made him a strong Churchman and believer in Divine Right. He was a boy when the troubles began, going to Balliol College, Oxford, about the ship-money time. He describes going to London to see "his Majesty's riding in state through the City to the Short Parliament, a very glorious and magnificent sight." He mentions "the frequent disorders at this period" in London, and "that

long, ungrateful, foolish and fatal Parliament, the beginning of all our sorrows for twenty years after."

He saw the "famous trial of the Earl of Strafford," and beheld "the fatal stroke that severed the wisest head in England."

Soon after, owing to "this ill face of affairs at home," he made a few months' tour in the Netherlands, where for a week he served in an English volunteer regiment on the Protestant side in the Thirty Years' War. He came back from Dunkirk to Dover by the "packet-boat, a pretty frigate of 6 guns." The voyage took twenty-five hours; for they were forced by the contrary wind to anchor off Calais, and even when off Dover could not get in for several hours owing to the wind. When Charles advanced against London after the battle of Edgehill, Evelyn joined him. But in three days he was sent home, because, as Surrey was in the power of the Parliament, his family might have suffered if he had fought for the King. The following year he went to London, and "saw the furious and zealous people demolish that stately Cross in Cheapside."

Evelyn found his position under the Parliament so unpleasant that he obtained leave from the King and went abroad, studying for some time at the University of Padua. After four years he returned to England, while the King was at Hampton Court, "being now in the power of those execrable villains, who not long after murdered him." Then came the execution. "The villainy of the Rebels proceeding so far as to try, condemn and murder our excellent King, struck me with such horror that I kept the day of his execution a fast, and would not be present at that execrable wickedness, receiving the sad account from my brother George." In the summer he went abroad again, having got a pass from the "rebel" Bradshaw. But after three years, "there being now so little appearance of any change for the better," he returned to England by the advice of his

friends, and with the leave of Charles II. He was tired of travelling, and also wished to look after the estate of his father-in-law, the Royalist minister at Paris. In spite of his opinions, his high character won him the respect of the government, and he suffered no molestation.

Evelyn's chief trouble was that the public Church services were forbidden, and every Christmas Day he laments in his diary that the churches were closed. He attended his parish church, in order not to be thought a Papist; sometimes there was an "honest" preacher, sometimes not. On one occasion he heard a sermon from a "mechanic" on the duty of shedding blood when God called for it. He often had the Church service conducted privately by a deprived clergyman, who also christened his children. Cromwell in 1655 forbade Church of England clergymen from preaching or administering the Sacraments. Still, private services went on. Three years later he attended a Christmas service at a chapel in London. During the Communion Service soldiers came in; they allowed the service to be completed, and then arrested the congregation. A colonel and others from Whitehall came and cross-examined the prisoners. Some were imprisoned. Evelyn was dismissed "with much pity for my ignorance. So I got home late the next day, blessed be God."

At last "died that arch-rebel Oliver Cromwell, called Protector"; and the following April "came a wonderful and sudden change in the face of the public; the new Protector Richard slighted; several pretenders and parties strive for the government; all anarchy and confusion; Lord have mercy on us!"

Then came General Monk from Scotland; at first "no man knew what he would do or declare." However, "perceiving how infamous and wretched a pack of knaves would still have usurped the supreme power," he brought about the Restoration; and 1660 was an "Annus Mirabilis," or year of wonders.

After the Restoration, Evelyn was high in the favour of Charles II., whom he respected in spite of his faults. In the second Dutch war he was appointed to look after the Dutch prisoners. But his chief interests were in science and gardening, and he was connected with the founding of the Royal Society. Though interested also in literature, he only mentions Milton as "the man who wrote for the Regicides"; Bunyan he does not mention at all. Evelyn's grief at James II.'s errors has been mentioned. Though no Jacobite, he was naturally no admirer of William and Mary. He died in Anne's reign, at the age of eighty-six. Few men have lived through such exciting times and seen so many changes as John Evelyn, who saw the execution of Strafford and the rejoicings over the battle of Blenheim.

Pepys's Diary.—More famous still is the diary of Samuel Pepys. He was the son of a London tradesman, who retired on a fortune; but his family was good, for he was cousin to a country gentleman who fought for the Parliament, became a "sea general," and commanded the fleet that brought back Charles II.; and he himself was educated at Magdalene College, Cambridge. He was a boy during the Civil War, but, as he tells us, was a great Roundhead. He was, however, no Puritan in his character, but easy-going and fond of pleasure; at the same time, he was an able man of business. He was also very fond of music, and composed songs. His diary begins with the memorable year 1660, when he was married, and a government clerk. He, like Evelyn, describes the strange state of England that winter. Every day after business Pepys went to a coffee-house to hear the latest news about Parliament and Monk. His cousin made him his secretary, and took him with him in the fleet to Holland. He tells us how on the voyage back King Charles walked on deck in the evening, and discoursed about his adventures after the battle of Worcester. The admiral was rewarded with an earldom, and obtained for Pepys a clerkship in

the Admiralty, whereupon he bought his first silk suit. He was given a house belonging to the Admiralty, near the office, a little west of the Tower.

During the plague the navy business was carried on at Deptford; Pepys sent his wife there to his cousin's, but lived himself mostly at home, going to Deptford by water. The fire, fortunately for him, broke out west of his house, and so spread very slowly in his direction; it had just reached the bottom of his street when it was stopped. In his alarm he had sent his plate and money out of town to his father's, and buried other things in his garden. The Dutch raid in the Thames caused him great alarm, besides the work it gave him. He talked of sending his possessions out of London again, and lamented the evil days fallen on England, which made people recall her greatness under Cromwell.

We see from the diary that the day still began early. Pepys often speaks of rising at four o'clock, and earlier when going on a journey. He was generally at his office till dinner at noon, occasionally in the afternoon, and even till ten at night. In the afternoon he was more often free to go to the theatre, or take a coach and shop with his wife, or go with friends to a coffee-shop or wine-shop. Sometimes he would walk with his wife in Moorfields, an open space, where Finsbury Square now is; or take her in a coach to Islington, a country village, where there was a cheese-cake house. He describes one whole day's outing, when he and his wife and friends started at five in the morning, and went on a pleasure barge to Hampton Court, and saw the palace and grounds. In the evening he sometimes had supper parties, followed by singing and dancing. He mentions once playing cards and winning 9s. 6d., which he hoped would not tempt him to be a gambler; and once a friend took him to a gambling-house, which he considered a terrible place. People had no regular holidays then. But Pepys was not much tied to his office. His duties took him about a great deal, and he

sometimes journeyed in the country on his own affairs, usually riding on horses hired at the post-houses. The diary stops in 1669, owing to weakness of his eyes. But we know that he lost his post at the time of the Popish Plot, being falsely accused of being a Papist, but was soon after given the higher post of secretary. This he lost on the same charge at the Revolution. The government gave him no pension for his services, and also owed him a large sum, so his last years were troubled with money difficulties. Pepys was a friend of Evelyn, being like him interested in science and literature; he was a President of the Royal Society. He died in Anne's reign, a few years before Evelyn.

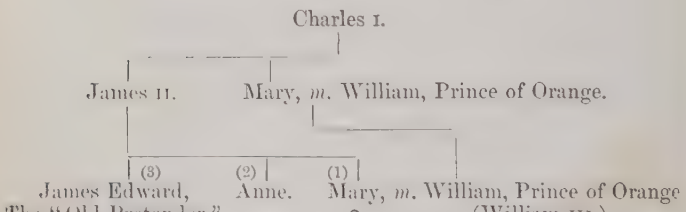
SUMMARY.

The Stuart days the beginning of modern times — The army and navy—Scientific advance; Bacon and Newton—Public means of conveyance; the post and newspapers—The new Classical Architecture—Introduction of tea and coffee—Dress—London; the Parks — Learning and literature; Milton, Bunyan, and Dryden—Memoirs of Colonel Hutchinson, and diaries of Evelyn and Pepys.

CHAPTER XLVI

William and Mary, 1689-1694
William III. (alone), 1694-1702

DESCENDANTS OF CHARLES I.



The New Government and the beginning of the Struggle with France

William and Mary.—William, Prince of Orange, and Stadtholder of Holland, was thirty-eight when he thus won the throne of England. He was not a popular sovereign. Not only was he disliked as a Dutchman, for though England and Holland were allies against France the two countries were still rivals in trade; he was also personally unattractive, being grave and reserved in manner, as well as weak in body and health. It was only in war that he showed the real greatness of his character. He did not show himself to his subjects like Charles II. For the air of Whitehall, near the river, did not suit his health, so he lived mostly at Hampton

Court. For a town palace, where he could be nearer Westminster, he bought the Earl of Nottingham's house at Kensington, now Kensington Palace, which he had enlarged by Wren.

Mary was a good, kind-hearted woman, and was gener-

Kensington Palace.

ally liked, though many could not forgive her turning against her father.

England joins in the War.—As Louis XIV. took up the cause of James, England joined in the war against France. Thus began the second great struggle between the two countries, which lasted, with intervals of peace, for a century and a quarter. It began as much from the national dislike of France, "Popery and Wooden Shoes," as from William's determination to break the power of Louis XIV. In the later wars there were new causes.

William's Position in England. Jacobites and Non-Jurors.—In gaining the throne of England, William had won the first point against Louis XIV. The question was could he keep the throne. He was indeed unpopular; but England wanted him for the sake of her liberty, as much as he wanted England for the sake of the war in

which England now joined. James's adherents, known as Jacobites, from Jacobus, the Latin of James, were very few in number, mostly Roman Catholic gentry. They were plotting all through the reign, but their plots came to nothing. Some of the High Church clergy, headed by Archbishop Sancroft and Bishop Ken, found it against their conscience to go against Divine Right, and take the oath of allegiance to "usurpers," in spite of what they had suffered from the King by Divine Right. So they left the Church, and founded a separate church, which lasted for a century. From their refusal to take the oath they were called Non-Jurors. They did not plot at all.

So James's only chance of return lay in the success of the French, and in his supporters in Scotland and Ireland. The help of France really weakened his cause, owing to the national enmity to France. There is a story about a Sussex fisherman who was captured by the French fleet. The admiral asked him if he were for King James. "I have nothing against James," replied the fisherman; "he is a worthy gentleman"; for men of his class knew little of politics. "Then," said the admiral, "you will take service with us." "What! fight for the French against the English! Your honour must excuse me. I could not do that to save my life."

Treachery among English Statesmen.—But to the statesmen of the day William's position did not seem so secure. They were afraid that some sudden turn of fortune might bring James back. And some of them, even Whigs, soon began to write to James promising their help, simply to obtain pardon from him. The worst traitor was John Churchill, who had been made Earl of Marlborough for his previous desertion of James. William was quite aware of all this treachery, but he seldom went further than to deprive the traitor of office. He was wise enough to see that executions for treason would do him more harm than good. He treated the traitors as guilty of dishonourable conduct towards him. He remarked one

day, "If I had been a private gentleman, my lord of Marlborough and I must have measured swords."

Risings in Scotland and Ireland. Viscount Dundee (Claverhouse).—To the Presbyterians of Scotland the Revolution was most welcome. A Convention met in Edinburgh, and accepted William and Mary on condition that Presbyterianism was established by law. So the religious troubles of Scotland came to an end. James's chief supporter there was Claverhouse, whom he had made Viscount Dundee. He had come to England to fight for James, but had been allowed by William to return to Scotland. Finding that he could do nothing in the Convention, he left Edinburgh, asserting that the Covenanters were plotting to murder him. Then he went off to the Highlands, where the Macdonalds, Macleans, Camerons, and other clans were as ready as in the days of Montrose to fight for the Stuarts from hatred of the Whig Campbells. As the song says—

> "To the Lords of Convention 'twas Claverhouse spoke:
> Ere the King's crown go down, there are crowns to be broke;
> Then each cavalier who loves honour and me,
> Let him follow the bonnets of Bonnie Dundee."

In Ireland it was worse. There, of course, the Roman Catholics at once took up arms for James; and the Protestants, hopelessly outnumbered, held out only in Londonderry and Enniskillen, which were crowded with refugees. So William found he had to fight for his crown not only in the war against France, but also in Scotland and Ireland. He himself had to stay in England, for there was much business to be done in settling affairs. He could only spare a few regiments for Scotland and Ireland. The rest of the army and the Dutch, except William's guards, were sent to the war in Flanders, and fresh troops were hastily raised. The commander in Scotland was General Mackay, himself of Highland descent, who had been colonel of a Scottish regiment in the Dutch army.

Scotland. The Battle of Killiecrankie and Death of

Dundee, 1689.—The Highland trouble was over first. Dundee found the Highland clans as difficult to manage as Montrose had. He earnestly begged James to send him a few thousand men from Ireland, but he sent only a few hundred. In July the two armies, both about three thousand men, met at the Pass of Killiecrankie in Perthshire, on the road north from Perth, which the Highland railway now follows. Mackay's men had struggled up through the pass, and were resting on the open ground

The Pass of Killiecrankie at the present day, with the Highland Railway.

beyond, when the Highlanders appeared. They at once formed line, and opened fire. But the Highlanders, after one volley, dropped their muskets, and with one headlong charge, with broadsword and target, broke the ranks of the enemy, while still fixing their bayonets, and swept them away. The cavalry fled in a panic. But in the moment of victory Dundee fell, mortally shot. The Highlanders, after their custom, turned to plunder. So Mackay was able to rally his forces, and, after a terrible march across wild country, at last reached Stirling.

Though he was sorrowing for a brother killed in the fight, he did not lose heart. More troops joined him, and he set about training his men for the next encounter. The death of Dundee was a great blow to James's cause. There was no leader to take his place; the Highlanders, advancing south, were repulsed with great loss from the town of Dunkeld, and soon after dispersed to their homes. In a month after Killiecrankie the rebellion was over.

Mackay marched into the Highlands, and built forts to

The battlefield of Killiecrankie at the present day.

overawe the clans. One of these, called Fort William, in honour of the King, still gives its name to a small town at the head of Loch Linnhe in the west of Scotland.

The Massacre of Glencoe, February 1692.—The end of the trouble in the Highlands was marked by one of the cruellest crimes in our history. The chieftains were very slow in making their submission, and at last it was proclaimed that any one who had not submitted by December 31st (1691) would be put to death with all his followers.

This made them submit; but a petty chieftain of the Macdonalds, dwelling in the mountain valley of Glencoe, ten miles south of Fort William, waited till the very last day. There was no magistrate at Fort William, so he made his submission four or five days later. One of the Scottish ministers, the "Master" of Stair (son of Lord Stair), who hated the Highlanders, reported to William that Glencoe had not submitted by December 31st. William was very busy at the time. He had heard little of the Highlanders, except that they were brigands. So he signed the order for Glencoe's punishment in accordance with the proclamation. The Master of Stair, instead of openly attacking Glencoe, thought it easier to use treachery. In February a company of soldiers appeared in the valley. The officer in command was a Campbell, whose niece had married one of Glencoe's sons. He declared he only wanted quarters for his men, and was received with true Highland hospitality. On the twelfth night the soldiers suddenly fell upon their hosts. Other soldiers were to have surrounded the valley to prevent escape, but the bad weather prevented their arrival. Thirty-six persons, including Glencoe himself, were killed; the rest fled to the mountains, where many, especially the old men, women, and children, died of cold. The survivors returned to find their houses blackened ruins.

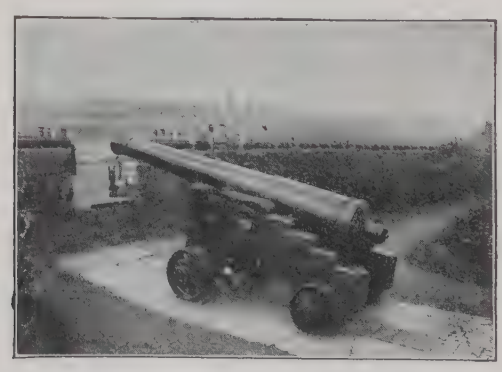
News travelled slowly in those days, and it was a long time before the true facts of the massacre came out. Three years later it was discussed by the Scottish Parliament. William ordered an inquiry, but the only punishment he inflicted was to dismiss the Master of Stair from office. So he cannot be acquitted of all blame in the massacre, though he had nothing to do with the way it was carried out.

Ireland, 1689. The Siege of Londonderry.—The danger in Ireland was far greater than in Scotland. James landed with officers and money from France, and in April appeared before Londonderry. It was not expected to resist; for its walls were old and weak, and its commander was a

Glencoe, with the Memorial Cross.

traitor; he had actually sent back the regiments from England, declaring that resistance was hopeless. But the citizens now rose against him; he had to hide for his life, and escaped over the wall to the enemy. Two officers took the command; and an aged clergyman, named Walker, took the lead among the citizens. James advanced within a hundred yards of the gate, but was received with shouts of "no surrender" and cannon-fire, and after more attempts to induce the citizens to surrender he returned himself to Dublin.

The siege began. The walls were bombarded, and one



The old wall of Londonderry, with "Roaring Meg," one of the cannons used in the siege.

attempt was made to storm them, but without success. And more than once the garrison sallied forth, and inflicted great loss on the ill-disciplined Irish. Then the besiegers tried to starve the city out, and by the middle of June the inhabitants were reduced to feed on horseflesh. Londonderry is a port on the river Foyle, which flows into a lough ten miles off; and one day sails were seen in Lough Foyle; it was a small squadron bringing provisions and troops under Colonel Kirke. Relief seemed at hand; but, to the bitter disappointment of the inhabitants, the sails

came no nearer. Kirke thought the passage up the river too dangerous, owing to the enemy's cannons. They soon made it more dangerous by erecting batteries along the banks of the Foyle, and fixing a huge boom, made of great beams lashed together, across it a mile and a half below the city.

For six weeks longer the defenders endured the horrors of the siege. Pestilence broke out; salted hides were now the chief food; hundreds were dying daily; and all the time the topmasts of ships full of provisions could be seen far away in the lough; but there was no talk of surrender. At last came orders from London to Kirke to make the attempt at all costs; and on the evening of July 30 the despairing defenders saw, to their joy, the sails of a man-of-war and two merchant-ships coming up the river.

After all, in spite of the batteries, the boom was broken with little loss, and Londonderry was relieved. The next day the besiegers retreated; the siege had lasted one hundred and five days. Thus was the cause of the Protestants saved in the north of Ireland. The 30th of July is still commemorated. The old walls which served so well are still kept up, and Parson Walker, the hero of the siege, is commemorated by a statue.

Enniskillen had no such fiery trial to endure. It was never besieged, and its brave citizens more than once sallied out and routed the Irish in its neighbourhood.

William goes to Ireland. Battle of the Boyne, July 1, 1690.—Later on larger forces landed in Belfast Lough under Marshal Schomberg, one of the greatest soldiers in Europe, but now over seventy. Half German and half English, he had served in the French army, and gained the rank of Marshal, but being a Protestant he had to leave it. He was unable to do anything, for his men, raw recruits unaccustomed to campaigning, and badly fed, owing to the frauds of the food contractors, only too common in those days, died off very fast. James, however, did not dare to attack him.

So next year, 1690, William came over himself with

good troops, British and foreign, brought over from Flanders. In June he advanced on Dublin. James had received eight thousand French infantry from Louis XIV.; but his army was rather less than William's. He now awaited him by the little river Boyne, which flows into the sea at Drogheda, twenty-five miles north of Dublin.

On July 1 the famous battle of the Boyne was fought. As a fight it was not very remarkable. The Irish infantry ran away, but the cavalry held their ground bravely as long as they could; all the French could do was to hinder the pursuit of the Irish. The losses on both sides were small; but the veteran Schomberg was killed, and also the brave Walker, who had been made Bishop of Derry. James rode off to Dublin. He bitterly complained of the conduct of the Irish. The next day he left for the south, and took ship to France. He never saw the British Isles again. The beaten army retreated to Limerick, and Dublin surrendered to William. The war was not yet over, but it was really decided at the Boyne James had shown plenty of courage in his early days and as admiral in the Dutch wars, but he cut a poor figure in Ireland. "Change kings," said an Irishman after the war to a Protestant, "and we will fight you again."

The Defeat of Beachy Head.—Elsewhere things had not gone well. Towards the end of June the allies were badly beaten in Flanders. Then, two days before the battle of the Boyne, the English and Dutch fleets, under the Earl of Torrington, were beaten off Beachy Head by the French under the able Admiral Tourville, who had eighty ships to Torrington's sixty; for part of the English fleet was absent. Torrington felt that the ruin of the English fleet would be a great disaster, so he let most of the fighting fall on the Dutch, and retreated up the Thames. These two defeats caused much alarm. A French invasion was feared, and Torrington was deprived of his command; but he is thought now to have acted

rightly. The danger roused the spirit of the nation; the militia of the southern counties were called out, and the men cheered lustily for King William and Queen Mary. But the French were not prepared for an invasion; all Tourville did was to burn Teignmouth in Devonshire, then a small fishing village. And, four days after the battle, the bells were pealing for the victory of the Boyne.

End of the Irish War, 1691.—After the surrender of Dublin, William besieged Limerick. But the Irish, fighting more for their country than for King James, and led by a brave Irish officer called Sarsfield, resisted as obstinately as the Protestants of Londonderry. And in September William gave up the siege and returned to England. He left the army under a Dutch general named Ginkel, who next year (1691) ended the war. A new French general commanded the Irish; but he was killed in the battle of Aughrim, near the Shannon, where Ginkel won a complete victory. In August the second siege of Limerick began, and by October Sarsfield had to come to terms with Ginkel.

Treaty of Limerick.—It was arranged that the Roman Catholics should have the same freedom as in the reign of Charles II., and that those soldiers who wished should be allowed to take service with Sarsfield in the French army; but those who did so were never to return to Ireland. The regiments had to march past Ginkel and Sarsfield, and those who wished to stay in Ireland were to turn off at a certain point. Of fourteen thousand only four thousand turned off. But the prospect of leaving their homes and native land was so bitter that many deserted, especially in some regiments that had to march to Cork to take ship. Sarsfield proclaimed that the men might take their wives and families. But there was not room for all; and at the last moment numbers of women rushed into the sea, trying in vain to get into the boats; some were even drowned. When the ships began to move a loud wail rose from the

deserted wives and sweethearts. It was one of the saddest scenes in Irish history, and the "exiles of Erin" have formed the subject of many a pathetic Irish poem ever since.

Under proper military discipline the "Irish Brigade," as it was called, retrieved the military reputation of Ireland by its gallantry in many a battle against England, and was kept up for a century. This was bad for England; but it was not the worst. The promise to the Roman Catholics was not kept, for the Protestants were resolved on vengeance. Roman Catholics were not allowed to vote for Parliament unless they abjured their religion; and during the next thirty years many cruel laws, called the Penal Laws, were passed against them. As a natural consequence, many of the gentry went abroad, not only to France to join the Irish Brigade, but to other countries too. There were Lacys, of Norman descent, in high command in the Russian army; we shall come across one Irishman commanding the French against us in India; a recent French general, a President of the Republic, was a MacMahon; an O'Higgins served Spain with distinction in her South American colonies; and his son fought for Chili, in her rebellion against Spain, so well that his name is still given by the Chilians to a man-of-war.

The "Broken Treaty of Limerick," as the Irish call it, bears sad fruit to this day in the unrest in Ireland. This unfortunate result is owing to the fierce religious strife of those times. In Ireland, alone in the British Empire, the old strife is as bitter as ever. There, after two centuries, the events of those years are still as vivid in the minds of both sides as if they happened yesterday. The relief of Derry and the battle of the Boyne are still celebrated by the Protestants. If Ireland could only forget, it would be much happier.

The French plan an Invasion. Battle of La Hogue, 1692.—The Continental war went on for six more years. The most important event was the sea-fight of La Hogue in 1692. That year Louis XIV. did what he ought to have

done after his victory of Beachy Head; he planned a great invasion of England with over twenty thousand men, Irish and French, who were assembled in Normandy. The Jacobite plotters promised a rising in England, and reported the fleet to be disloyal, so that Tourville would be able to beat it with ease, and clear the way for the invasion. But Louis found that opportunities once neglected do not often return. There was indeed some disloyalty in the fleet; even the Whig Admiral Russell, who commanded, had been corresponding with James, from some irritation against William, though he had been one of those who invited William over. But when it came to fighting the French there was no question of disloyalty on sea or land. Mary wrote to Admiral Russell declaring her confidence in the patriotism of the fleet, and her letter was received with enthusiasm.

Tourville, too, had a piece of ill-luck. Contrary winds prevented the Mediterranean part of the fleet coming round in time. So Tourville had only fifty ships against Russell's ninety English and Dutch. Still, having orders to fight, and perhaps believing the Jacobite reports, he attacked the allies, and for some hours skilfully held his own. At last he had to retreat, and was hotly pursued. Sixteen of his biggest ships were destroyed in the pursuit, most of them in the Bay of La Hogue in Normandy, where they were attacked with boats and fire-ships and burnt. James was there with the army, and could not but admire the bravery of the English, though they were ruining all his hopes. "See my brave English!" he kept on saying. The battle was actually fought in mid-channel, but was called from the bay where it ended.

England Mistress of the Sea. Privateering.—The French never again during the war risked a great naval battle; their energies were taken up with the land-fighting. So the battle of La Hogue was the beginning of our mastery of the sea; for the Dutch were our allies, and also had not money enough for a large fleet. Henceforth the

French tried to injure us by capturing our trading-ships. This was mainly done by "privateers," small fast ships fitted out by private persons under the authority of government. Much of the work of our navy was to protect the trading-ships. They generally sailed in "convoys," that is, in large bodies escorted by men-of-war. The very year after his defeat, Tourville, who was with his main fleet at the Straits of Gibraltar, when he was thought to be at Brest, surprised one of these convoys, which was going to Smyrna in Asia Minor; he did not capture all the ships, but the loss to the English merchants was over £1,000,000. Still, this kind of warfare did not force England to make peace; we also had our privateers preying on the French commerce.

In 1694 an attempt was made to take the French naval station of Brest. But the Earl of Marlborough treacherously gave warning to James. The French were all prepared, and the attack was beaten off, with the loss of the English general.

The War in the Netherlands. William's two Defeats and one Success. Peace of Ryswick, 1697.—For six summers after the battle of the Boyne William was commanding in the Netherlands. Nothing really decisive happened there. It was mainly a war of sieges, for the Netherlands were protected against France by a barrier of strongly fortified towns. The two armies were about equal in number, but the French general at this time was better than William; he took several towns and, in 1692 and 1693, defeated William in two fiercely contested battles. General Mackay was killed in the first of these battles, and General Sarsfield, of the Irish Brigade, in the second. The French gained little real advantage from their victories owing to William's skill. But, after the death of this general, William, in his fifth campaign (1695), besieged and took Namur, a very important fortress, which the French had previously taken. This siege and the battle of the Boyne were William's only two great successes in war.

Both sides were growing exhausted; envoys met to discuss peace at the town of Ryswick in Holland; and in 1697 peace was made. Louis XIV. gave up all his conquests except Strasburg, the great fortress on the Rhine, which he had taken from the Emperor, and agreed to

William III.

recognise William as King of England. In spite of his defeats William had succeeded in checking Louis XIV.; his humbling was still to come.

Home Affairs. William III. and Parliament.—We must now go back to affairs in England during these eight years. William had at first great difficulties, not from the opposition of the Commons, but from the fierce party spirit.

The Whigs wanted vengeance taken on all who had aided James II. and Charles II. in their tyranny. William wanted a general forgiveness, so as to have a united nation behind him for the war.

So persistent were the Whigs that, at the beginning of 1690, William summoned a new Parliament, and got a Tory majority; for the country, too, was disgusted with the Whigs. He now had an Act of Grace passed, from which a very few persons were excluded by name, and they, as a matter of fact, were left in peace. So that question was settled.

The Mutiny and Toleration Acts, 1689.—Many other difficulties were got rid of during these years. In the beginning of 1689, in quite an accidental way, the standing army, so feared as a means of tyranny, was made legal. When the troops were ordered abroad for the war a regiment mutinied at Ipswich, and declared for King James. The reason was that the army was, not unnaturally, in a state of irritation owing to the poor figure it had cut, by no fault of its own, in the invasion. The mutiny was suppressed by Dutch troops. The ringleaders were tried and convicted of treason at the Assizes, and imprisoned. The regiment itself, when once in the field against the French, forgot its grievances, and fought loyally for William.

The mutiny had caused great alarm in London. It was felt that, to prevent more mutinies, the army must be put under military law like foreign armies. So a Mutiny Act was passed, which made it legal for a "court-martial," that is, a court composed of officers, to punish insubordination, even by death. At the same time the Act stated that the army was under the control of Parliament; and it was only passed for six months, afterwards changed to one year. Ever since the Mutiny Act has been passed every year; it is now called the "Army Annual Act." So England now had a legal army, but Parliament could put an end to it when it chose.

The Dissenters deserved a reward for their patriotism in

James II.'s reign. William himself wished for a reconciliation between them and the Church. That was impossible; but a Toleration Act was passed by which they were free to worship as they liked on certain easy conditions. But they were still unable to hold any office unless they took the Communion in a church; this the less strict ones did. The Toleration Act did not apply to the Roman Catholics.

The Money difficulty. The "Civil List" and Annual Revenue.—You will remember that in old days the control of money was the chief weapon of the Commons against the power of the sovereign, and it had started the quarrel between Charles I. and Parliament. Charles II. and James II. had been granted the ordinary revenues for life. Now when the question came up in the second year of the reign, even the Tories, who then had a majority in the Commons, settled it in a way that finally secured the power of the Commons. Only half of the ordinary revenue was voted to the Crown for life; it was about £600,000, and was called the "Civil List," because it included the list of salaries to ministers, judges, and officials. The other half was voted for four years only, and after that it was voted annually.

William accepted this arrangement, but he was deeply hurt. "The gentlemen of England," he complained, "trust me less than James II." As a matter of fact, the gentlemen of England had seen the mistake they made in trusting James II. This arrangement has lasted ever since, except that the Civil List is now only for the sovereign's private expenditure, all salaries being paid by the State. At the present day the Civil List is about £400,000; the rest of the expenditure (before the war) nearly £200,000,000. This shows how enormously the expenses and the wealth of the nation have increased since the reign of William III.

Beginning of the National Debt.—The ordinary revenue was, of course, not enough while the war lasted, and every year the Commons voted additional money—£2,000,000 or

more. As this made the taxes heavy, and people grumbled, the Chancellor of the Exchequer began to borrow money from rich merchants, at first £1,000,000 a year and then more. The merchants, who in former days had to be forced to lend money to the kings, were quite ready to lend it to the government, which paid them £10 a year interest for every £100.

Thus began what is called the "National Debt." It was £20,000,000 by the end of the war, and has grown with every war since till after Waterloo it was £900,000,000. It was afterwards reduced, but is now no less than £8000,000,000. In those days £20,000,000 was an enormous debt, and many people thought it very bad for the country. But the country proved quite able to bear it; and, as the interest was paid to Englishmen, not foreigners, the money did not go out of the country. It was useful, too, if a person wished to invest his money quite safely; the shares in it are bought and sold, so a person can get his money back if he wants. The only danger was that, if the exiled Stuarts came back, they might refuse to recognise the debt. This made the commercial classes still firmer against them.

The Triennial Act.—Up to this time the sovereign could summon and dissolve Parliaments when he liked; so he might keep a Parliament as long as it suited him, contrary to the wishes of the nation. Charles II. had done so with the Cavalier Parliament. To prevent this a "Triennial" (or "Three-year") Act was passed, by which no Parliament might last more than three years; at the end of that time a new one must be elected; but, of course, the sovereign could call a new Parliament before if he chose. There was a struggle over this Bill, because the Tories considered it an insult to the Commons, and William considered it an attack on his rights; but in the end it was carried.

England after the Settlement.—These measures really completed the Revolution; and as William had been able to keep his throne the new system had time to get into

working order with a government which satisfied England's love of liberty. England was thus able to play a greater part than she did under Elizabeth, or even under Cromwell's strong rule. Never again did want of money check her advance. Whereas the nation had grudged hundreds of thousands of pounds to the Stuart kings, it now readily contributed or lent millions to Parliament.

It must not be imagined that our present system of government had been reached. Now the government is directed by the Prime Minister, who is the leader of the party that is strongest in the House of Commons; all the other ministers are under him. William III. still directed the government, especially foreign affairs; the ministers were separately his servants. But the change has been made gradually during the next two centuries without any convulsion like the Revolution of 1688. At first he took his ministers from both parties, but in the middle of his reign he found it better to take them from one party, the Whigs. But it was some time before the regular party system came in. Though the great difficulties had been settled, the quarrels between the two parties went on, and were much more bitter than nowadays, though there was really less for them to quarrel about. Political opponents were no longer executed, as Strafford and Lord William Russell had been; there were indeed for a time attempts at impeachment which never came to anything, but they were gradually dropped. Politicians fought out their quarrels in Parliament, where they could abuse one another to their hearts' content. These party struggles were at any rate better than civil war and executions.

The Earl of Marlborough and Princess Anne.—One of the strangest points in the reign is the conduct of the Earl of Marlborough, who first betrayed James II. and then betrayed William. Had William been able to employ him against the French throughout the war his wonderful skill in war must have brought more success to our arms. Probably Marlborough's real object in his

treason was to put the Princess Anne on the throne. The Countess of Marlborough had been lady-in-waiting to Anne in Charles II.'s reign, and had gained complete influence over her. For the Countess was a clever, pushing woman, though hot-tempered; and Anne was simple-minded, good-natured, and easily led. So intimate were they that in their private intercourse they dropped the difference of rank; Anne became plain Mrs. Morley, and the Countess Mrs. Freeman.

Marlborough hoped that, if Anne were Queen, he would have the chief power; for Anne's husband, Prince George of Denmark, was a dull, stupid man, of no account. Just as the Marlboroughs had persuaded Anne to desert her father, so they now persuaded her to profess repentance and obtain his pardon. The Jacobites, however, suspected Marlborough's double game, and never trusted him, so his scheme fell through. William was aware of Marlborough's treachery, but could not prove it against him. All he could do was to dismiss him from his employ and from the Court. Mary entreated Anne to give up her friends. She refused. So there was a quarrel between the two sisters, and Anne kept away from the Court.

At the end of 1694 Mary died from small-pox, which was very severe in those days before vaccination had been discovered; she had no children. This made a great difference to Marlborough. Owing to William's bad health, Anne would probably become Queen in a few years. He gave up his plotting; Anne was reconciled to William. But it was only after a time that William would restore Marlborough to his old position.

Plot against William's life, 1696.—The year before the peace the Jacobite plotters were very active. They were arranging for a French invasion; but Louis XIV. would not start the invasion till the Jacobites had risen, and the Jacobites would not rise till the French had landed, so the scheme fell through. A few Jacobites also planned to assassinate William. He used to drive every Saturday

from Kensington to Richmond Park to hunt, crossing the Thames by boat near Turnham Green; and he was to be attacked in a narrow lane leading from the crossing. The

Queen Mary.

plot was betrayed, and William put off his hunting. Several of the plotters were convicted and executed. But the chief plotter made a confession, in which he gave the names of several statesmen, including Admiral Russell and other Whigs, as well as Marlborough, who had corresponded

with James. It would be very awkward for the Whigs if these facts came out at his trial. So instead of trying him, the Whigs, who had a majority in a new Parliament recently elected, passed a Bill for his execution, as had been done in the case of Strafford. The Bill was much disliked, and the Lords voted it by a majority of only seven. However, William accepted it. It was the last time a man was executed in this unfair way.

William III. and Parliament.—William had had an enthusiastic welcome on his return to England after the peace. All classes joined in the rejoicings, except the little Jacobite party. But his popularity did not last. The death of Mary, besides being a bitter grief to him, had injured his position; for now he, a foreigner, was sole sovereign. And he did not improve his popularity by spending his time, when Parliament was not sitting, at his home in Holland. The conduct of Parliament now so mortified him that he again began to think of resigning the crown. The reasons of this conduct were the old fear of a standing army and the English hatred of foreigners. At the end of the war the army numbered no less than eighty thousand men. Parliament, having control of it by the Mutiny Act, reduced it to ten thousand men. A year later a new House of Commons was elected, which was more Tory than the last; and the Tories disliked the standing army more than the Whigs, so they reduced it still further to seven thousand. Moreover, these seven thousand were all to be English; so William had to send away his own Dutch guards which he had kept in London. This he took as a personal affront. William had also, rather unwisely, given large estates in Ireland to some of his Dutch followers. And then Parliament passed a law that these estates should be given up. Again William, deeply mortified, had to submit. He must have felt that the English were very ungrateful to him for the great service he had done them.

Act of Settlement, 1701. The Electress Sophia of Hanover made Heiress.—In the year 1700 Anne's only surviving child, the Duke of Gloucester, died of small-pox at the age of eleven. She had had several other children, but had lost them all, to her sorrow, in their infancy. So it was necessary to make fresh arrangements for the succession, to keep out James's son, Prince James Edward. The only other descendants of James I. were two daughters of his granddaughter, Henrietta Maria, Duchess of Orleans, who were both Roman Catholics, and the family of his daughter, the "Winter Queen." Rupert and her other sons were dead, and had left no living children. Her daughters had turned Roman Catholic, except one, Sophia. So by an "Act of Settlement" Parliament declared that the crown should go to Sophia and her descendants, provided, of course, that they were Protestants. Sophia was now an old lady, widow of the Elector of Hanover; and her son George, the reigning Elector, was four years older than Anne.

There were other provisions in the Act showing the ill-feeling against William; for instance, that the sovereign should not leave the country, or go to war in defence of his foreign possessions, without the consent of Parliament, or appoint foreigners to posts in England. But there was one very good provision, that judges should not be dismissed by the sovereign except for misconduct, and even then only at the request of both Houses of Parliament. So judges would not be tempted to give bad decisions from fear of the sovereign, as used to happen. The House of Commons that passed this Act was Tory, which shows that even the Tories felt the danger of a Roman Catholic king.

The Spanish Succession.—The reason why William had allowed the English Parliament to treat him so badly was that he was expecting a new war with France, and so did not wish to quarrel with it.

The King of Spain, feeble both in mind and body, was

not expected to live long; he had no children, and there was no other Spanish prince. Louis XIV. and the Emperor were his nearest relations, having married his sisters, while their mothers were his aunts. Louis XIV. wanted his grandson Philip, the second son of the Dauphin, to succeed in Spain. The Emperor wanted his second son, the Archduke Charles. William did not want either to have all the Spanish possessions. The whole question of the rights of the competitors and the negotiations is very complicated. The chief point is that Louis secretly agreed with William to a division of the Spanish possessions. The Spaniards found this out, and were naturally angry. And when the King of Spain died at the end of 1700, it was found that he had left all his dominions to Philip; and Louis XIV. accepted them for him.

Death of James II., 1701. War of the Spanish Succession.—William was very angry; the Tories were now in power in England, and did not want a war. William was trying to arrange with the Emperor what could be done, when Louis XIV. saved him further trouble. For in September 1701 James II. died, and Louis recognised his son, Prince James Edward, now thirteen years of age, as the rightful King of England, thus breaking the recent treaty. The English of both parties were furious. William took the opportunity to dissolve Parliament and summon a new one. The Whigs now gained the majority, and voted an army of forty thousand men, and forty thousand sailors for the navy. The war is known from its cause as the "War of the Spanish Succession." For a third time William was in arms against his old foe, Louis XIV. But he never took command. He was in very poor health; and in March 1702, when he was riding at Hampton Court, his horse stumbled on a mole-hill and threw him. His collar-bone was broken, and he died from the shock a few days later, at the age of fifty-one. The Jacobites were delighted at the death of the hated usurper, and for a long time a favourite toast among

them was to the "little gentleman in black," *i.e.* the mole which had caused the accident.

SUMMARY.

England joins in the war against France—William's strong position in England; disloyalty of statesmen—Highland rising in Scotland; battle of Killiecrankie and death of Dundee—Suppression of the Highlands; Massacre of Glencoe—Rebellion in Ireland; siege of Londonderry—Battle of the Boyne; siege and treaty of Limerick—Ireland after the surrender—The war with France; defeat of Beachy Head and victory of La Hogue—William's defeats on land; his one success—Treaty of Ryswick.

Home affairs; settlement of the new Constitution—Mutiny and Toleration Acts—The revenue; the National Debt—Triennial Act—Advance of England under the new system—Princess Anne and Marlborough's treachery—Death of Mary—William's treatment by Parliament; dismissal of his Dutch guards; his land grants—The Act of Succession; the Electress Sophia heiress after Anne—The succession to the throne of Spain—Louis XIV. recognises Prince James Edward as King on the death of James II.—The War of the Spanish Succession.

DATES.

1689. Siege of Londonderry.
1690. Battle of the Boyne.
1692. Massacre of Glencoe.

CHAPTER XLVII

Anne, 1702-1714
The Overthrow of Louis XIV.

Anne and the Marlboroughs.—Anne was thirty-eight years of age when she became Queen. She was not clever, but she was good-hearted, a faithful wife, and a conscientious Queen, and she gained the name of "Good Queen Anne." She was not the sort of sovereign to struggle for her rights against Parliament, so the new system of government had further time to settle down. Her husband, Prince George of Denmark, whose feeble character has already been mentioned, was not given the title of King, as Philip of Spain had been when he married Mary; but he was made nominally head of the army and navy. He died in 1708. With the accession of Anne the Marlboroughs attained the object of their ambition. "Mr. Freeman" practically ruled England. He was made Captain-General of the Forces, and took command in Flanders; "Mrs. Freeman" was made Mistress of the Robes. Marlborough was a Tory; but, as the Whigs were more eager for the war than the Tories, he advised Anne to include some Whigs in the ministry, which thus again consisted of both parties. There was, naturally, much jealousy of him among the leading men, and a party hostile to him and the war soon arose among the Tories.

England's Allies in the War. Prussia.—The sides in the "War of the Spanish Succession" were the same as in the late war, except that Louis XIV. now had Spain on his

side, and also the German Elector of Bavaria. On the side of the allies there was a new king, the King of Prussia.

Anne, as Princess, with the Duke of Gloucester, who died in 1700.

He was the Elector of Brandenburg, and had asked the Emperor to raise him to the rank of king as a reward for his services in the last war. The Emperor did so; he could not foresee that this new kingdom would in after

Emery Walker sc.

years overthrow the power of his successors in Germany. Prussia was territory belonging to Brandenburg on the Baltic, outside the Empire; and the Elector took it as the name of his new kingdom, to show that he considered himself independent of the Emperor. The Electors and Dukes of Germany were all now really independent. The dominions over which the Emperor actually ruled were what is now Austria and Hungary.

Marlborough and the Allies. Prince Eugène.—Marlborough was accepted by the Dutch as commander-in-chief of the allied army in the Netherlands. He was now in the position held by William III., and he displayed the

marvellous qualities which had been before obscured by his treachery. He was the greatest general of the day, and one of the greatest generals of modern times. But fighting was not all he had to do. The German princes were very jealous of one another, and Marlborough had to smooth down their quarrels and keep them loyal to the alliance. For this task he was well fitted; he was a handsome man, with great charm of manner and a perfectly cool temper, very different in this to his wife. Fortunately he became great friends with the Austrian commander-in-chief, Prince Eugène of Savoy. Eugène was cousin of the Duke of Savoy, at this time an ally of France, though he soon went over to the allies. He was

born in France, for his grandfather had married a French countess, and he wanted to be a French soldier; but, unfortunately for France, Louis XIV. would not have him, because he was not tall enough. So he entered the Austrian army, distinguished himself in the last war, and after that won a great victory over the Turks in Hungary. Being connected with three countries, Italy, France, and Germany, he used to sign his name in a mixture of the three languages, "Eugenio von Savoie." Prince Eugène was a dashing soldier, and one of the best generals of the day after Marlborough. He greatly admired Marlborough, and the two always worked well together.

The first two Campaigns. Marlborough hampered by the Dutch Deputies.—Nothing decisive happened in the first two years of the war. The French won a victory on the Rhine, and kept Eugène at bay in North Italy. Marlborough had two chances of beating the French; but the Dutch insisted on sending deputies with the army, who were very nervous of a defeat, and would not let Marlborough fight. Some of his plans, too, were spoilt by mistakes of Dutch generals. However, he drove the French right away from the frontiers of Holland, which they were dangerously threatening, and took some important fortresses. At the end of the first campaign the Queen rewarded him with the title of Duke.

The French made no attempt to fight at sea. The English and Dutch fleets under Admiral Rooke, with twelve thousand soldiers, tried the old plan of an attack on Cadiz, which failed from mismanagement. But Rooke heard that the Spanish treasure ships from America had arrived at Vigo harbour, on the north-west of Spain, convoyed by a French squadron. So to Vigo he sailed. The harbour was defended with forts and a boom; but the soldiers landed and took the forts; the fleet forced the entrance of the harbour, and burnt or carried off the war and treasure ships. Most of the treasure had been already landed, but much booty was taken.

The year 1704. Blenheim.—The great year of the war was 1704. The French plan was to send an army from the Rhine against Vienna, the Austrian capital, through Bavaria. Marlborough knew of this, and he formed a plan with Prince Eugène that they should unite on the Danube and fight the French and Bavarians there. It

The Duke of Marlborough. By Kneller.

was a risky plan, for, if he were defeated so far away, his army would be ruined; and he had never yet commanded in a great battle. He kept his plan quite secret in England, knowing that it would be forbidden. And he told the Dutch, who would have insisted on his staying to defend Holland, that he was going to fight on the Moselle. When he reached the Moselle he suddenly started

southwards with part of the army, including ten thousand English, crossed the Rhine, and made his way over hilly country to the Danube. He reached it before the French, and beat part of the Bavarian army. Then the French advanced, and Prince Eugène, who had been watching them, joined Marlborough.

On August 13 Marlborough and Eugène attacked the French and Bavarians. They were posted by the village of Blenheim, on the north bank of the Danube, with a marshy brook in their front. Both armies numbered rather over fifty thousand men. Blenheim was strongly fortified, and resisted all the attacks of the English. Eugène, who was farthest from the river, was hotly engaged with the Bavarians. But by the afternoon Marlborough got his cavalry across the marshy brook, charged, and put the French cavalry to flight, and broke the centre of the French army. For the French general had made the mistake of putting too many of his infantry, twelve regiments, into Blenheim. He himself was captured, and the troops in Blenheim were surrounded, and forced to lay down their arms. The loss of the French and Bavarians, killed, wounded, and prisoners, was forty thousand; the remains of the army hastily retreated to the Rhine. Vienna was saved; and by the end of the year Marlborough was back in the Netherlands, where nothing had happened.

The news of the battle of Blenheim came as a terrible shock to France; for a long time no one would believe that twelve French regiments had surrendered. Marlborough was recognised as the greatest general of the day; he had shattered the reputation of the French army, which for half a century had been deemed invincible. The aim of William III.'s life had been accomplished: the power of Louis XIV. had been broken. In Southey's well-known poem, you will remember, the old peasant, who lived on the battlefield, could not tell his grandchildren "what they fought about." All he knew was that it was "a famous victory."

Capture of Gibraltar.—At sea, too, an important event occurred. Admiral Rooke, after landing twelve thousand men in Portugal, which had joined the Alliance, sailed on to the Mediterranean. Finding the rock of Gibraltar very weakly garrisoned, he landed troops and took it. Gibraltar is a great rock, three miles long, joined to the mainland by a narrow isthmus of sand, and, when properly defended, very difficult to take. As the Straits are only ten miles wide, it is a most useful position for a naval power like

The Rock of Gibraltar

England. After this the French came out of Toulon and fought Rooke. Both fleets were about fifty ships strong, and the victory was undecided. But the French never fought again at sea; as in the last war, the land-fighting occupied all their energies.

Marlborough's Victories of Ramillies, 1706, and Oudenarde, 1708. The defeat of Almanza in Spain.—For the rest of the war Marlborough commanded in the Netherlands, and there the chief fighting took place. As in the last reign, the war was very slow; but Marlborough won two great victories at Ramillies, a village near Namur, in

1706, and at the town of Oudenarde in 1708. Prince Eugène, who had driven the French headlong out of Italy by a great victory at Turin, the year of Ramillies, was with Marlborough at Oudenarde. The French had now been driven right back to their frontier, and lost almost all the Netherlands, and Marlborough wanted to end the war by marching on Paris. But Eugène thought it safer to take the French frontier fortress of Lille first; and the siege and capture of Lille took up the rest of the year.

In Spain attempts had been made to drive out Philip; the fighting there was with much smaller forces than elsewhere. The Spaniards were generally on the side of Philip; but their army and navy were now very weak, and most of the fighting was done by the French. Britain made an alliance with Portugal; and in 1706 the allies advanced from Portugal to Madrid, and proclaimed the Archduke Charles king; but they were forced to retreat, and were badly beaten the next year at Almanza. In this battle the allies were commanded by a Frenchman, a Huguenot exile, who had fought for William in Ireland, and been made Earl of Galway; and the French were commanded by an Englishman, the Jacobite Duke of Berwick. The year of Oudenarde, however, a naval expedition captured the island of Minorca, which has an excellent harbour.

Louis XIV. tries in vain to make Peace.—Both after Ramillies and Oudenarde, Louis XIV. offered to make peace. For Marlborough seemed invincible, and France was growing exhausted. He was ready to give up Philip's claim to Spain; and Marlborough, though naturally eager for more glories, thought after Oudenarde that Louis's offer should be accepted, but the other allies insisted that France should join in driving Philip out of Spain. "If I must fight," said the old King of France, "I will not fight against my grandson." So the war had to go on.

Tory opposition to the War. Anne and the Duchess of Marlborough.—The allies made a great mistake in refusing to make peace after Oudenarde; they never had

such an opportunity again. In England the Tories were turning more and more against the war. The Whigs, however, had won at the elections held the year after Blenheim ; and Marlborough was obliged to rely on them entirely, and all the Tories were turned out of the ministry. So there was now a Whig ministry, and the war was regarded as a Whig war. The Tories were really afraid that Marlborough might use the army to make himself a sort of Oliver Cromwell, and crush the liberties of England. They wanted to end the war, and hurl Marlborough from his high position. Unfortunately for him, a coolness was springing up between Anne and the Duchess. "Mrs. Morley" was, after twenty years, growing tired of the temper and domineering ways of "Mrs. Freeman." There was among the ladies-in-waiting a Mrs. Masham, wife of one of Prince George's gentlemen. She had been brought to Court by the Duchess, but she was cousin of a leading Tory. He set her on to work against the Duchess, and gain influence over Anne for the benefit of the Tories.

Bloody Victory of Malplaquet, 1709. Loss of Spain, 1710.—Unfortunately, too, the war did not go so well the next two years. Louis XIV. appealed to the patriotism of his subjects, who, in spite of the great distress in France, answered nobly to his call. The French commander strongly entrenched his army between two woods by the village of Malplaquet, just in France. There Marlborough and Prince Eugène attacked him. Both armies numbered over one hundred thousand men. Marlborough made a clever plan of attack, but his orders were not properly carried out. So though he won the victory, and drove the French from their entrenchments, it was at the cost of over twenty thousand men, including a large proportion of officers, while the French lost only half the number, and retreated in good order. "Another such defeat, sire," wrote the French general to Louis, "and your enemies will be destroyed." The next year the French managed to avoid a battle, and Marlborough and Eugène only took a couple of towns.

In Spain things were worse. The year after Malplaquet (1710) the allies won two victories, and again took Madrid. But a French general with a new army forced them to withdraw, and fell upon them in their retreat to the coast. First he surrounded the English division, and forced it to surrender; and then he defeated the Germans after a stubborn fight. So Philip was again secure in his new kingdom.

Unpopularity of the War and the Whigs. The Trial of Dr. Sacheverell, 1710.—England was now getting tired of this never-ending war, in which English blood and English money seemed to be poured out simply for the benefit of the allies. The Whigs were growing unpopular, and Anne was growing more and more angry with the Duchess of Marlborough. In this state of things, at the beginning of 1710, the Whig government thought it necessary to bring to trial a clergyman, Dr. Sacheverell, who had preached a very violent sermon against the Dissenters. At this there was a great outcry, for many people thought him ill-used. Anne too, who was a strong Churchwoman, and disliked the sort of bishops the Whig government appointed, disapproved of the prosecution, which made her all the more popular. She came herself to listen to the trial, and her sedan-chair was surrounded by a crowd shouting, "God bless your Majesty! We hope your Majesty is for High Church and Dr. Sacheverell." He was found guilty, but the government dared not punish him more than by forbidding him to preach for three years. So the trial really ended in a triumph for him; London and other towns were illuminated, and bonfires were lit in the country.

Disgrace of the Duchess of Marlborough. Fall of the Whigs.—The Duchess of Marlborough had for some time stayed away from Court, unable to endure the sight of her hated rival's favour with the Queen. In the spring of 1710, not long after Dr. Sacheverell's trial, she sought an interview with Anne to justify her conduct. She was kept

waiting a long time, while, she supposed, the Queen was consulting Mrs. Masham. At last she was admitted. With floods of tears she poured out her grievances and explanations. Anne coldly refused to answer them. At last the angry Duchess exclaimed, "You will suffer in this world or the next for your cruelty." "That is my business," replied Anne, and swept out of the room. This was their last interview, the end of the long friendship of Mrs. Morley and Mrs. Freeman.

In the summer Anne was assured by the Tory leaders that the country was on their side; she began to dismiss the chief Whig ministers and appoint Tories. The rest of the Whigs then resigned. So a Tory ministry was now in power, and when there was a General Election in the autumn the country returned a large Tory majority. The two chief Tory ministers were St. John and Harley, who had been in the ministry in the early years of the reign. They were soon made Viscount Bolingbroke and Earl of Oxford. Bolingbroke was a very able but unscrupulous man.

When Marlborough returned to England at the end of the year he begged Anne to forgive his wife; but though he went down on his knees, it was no use. Anne, indeed, told him that he must make the Duchess give up her gold key of office. The Duchess, in her rage, threw the key at him, and he took it to the Queen.

The Tory Ministry negotiate with France. Marlborough's last Campaign, 1711.—The Duke of Marlborough still kept his command. The campaign of 1711 went like the previous one; he skilfully drove back the French, but only captured one town. The next campaign he hoped really to march on Paris; but there was no next campaign for him. The Tory ministry were already secretly negotiating with Louis XIV., and in England Tory writers were pouring out pamphlets in support of peace. The ablest of them was the famous Dean Swift. In his *Conduct of the Allies* he pointed out how they were using England for

their own selfish ends, and how £7,000,000 spent this year only resulted in the capture of one town.

The cause of peace was greatly helped also by the death of the Emperor. He was the elder brother of the Archduke Charles, their father having died a few years before. His brother being childless, the Archduke Charles was now elected Emperor; and the English and Dutch were naturally not anxious for him to have the Spanish possessions also.

When the session of Parliament began in December the Queen announced in her speech that negotiations for peace had begun, "notwithstanding the arts of those who delight in war." This was a hit at the Duke of Marlborough, and was repeated in the debate by a Tory peer. The Duke, who had returned from his campaign, at once rose, and with a bow to Anne, who was present, appealed to her whether he had not always worked for peace. "But," he ended, "I am of the same opinion as the rest of the allies, that it is a danger to the liberty of Europe for Spain to be left to the House of Bourbon." Some Tory lords voted with the Whigs, who thus had a majority of eight. But in the Commons the same evening there was a majority of two to one for the peace.

Creation of Tory Peers. Marlborough's Disgrace.—With the Queen and the Commons behind them, the ministry took a bold course. They got Anne to create twelve Tory peers, which gave them a majority in the House of Lords. This is the only time such a step has been taken, though it has been threatened more than once since. One Tory country gentleman refused the peerage offered him. "Peers," he said, "used to be made for services which they have done; but I should be made for services that I am to do." It was useless for the Whigs to protest, for nothing illegal had been done. But on the first appearance of the new peers, as they happened to be the same number as a jury, a witty Whig peer asked whether they would vote singly or by their foreman. By this he meant that the whole twelve were bound to vote together for the ministry.

At the same time Marlborough was publicly dismissed from his command, on the ground that he had received presents of money amounting to £60,000 from the person who supplied the army with bread, and also kept £170,000 of the money given him for paying the foreign troops. Marlborough was known to be fond of money. But he declared that, though he had received the money, it was in accordance with the usual custom of the day, and that he had not used it for himself, but spent it on "secret service," that is, on spies. There is no doubt that there was much dishonesty in those days among both officers in the army and navy, and also members of the government, as to money passing through their hands.

England deserts the Allies, 1712. Treaty of Utrecht, 1713.—In January 1712 Prince Eugène came over to England to see what he could do. He was received honourably by the Queen and ministry, and presented with a diamond-hilted sword; the people cheered him enthusiastically. But he could not stop the peace negotiations. His new colleague in the next campaign was the Duke of Ormonde, son of Charles I.'s general in Ireland, and naturally a Jacobite. He had orders not to fight, and in the middle of the campaign withdrew the English troops altogether, to the bitter shame of the officers and men. Eugène was then defeated, and driven out of France. In this dishonourable way the English part in the war came to an end. All the year a peace conference had been sitting in Holland at Utrecht, and in March 1713 the Treaty of Utrecht was signed.

Louis XIV. won, though not completely, what he had fought for and had previously offered to give up. Philip was to have Spain, with its colonial possessions; but the Emperor was to have the Spanish Netherlands, the kingdom of Naples, and other Spanish possessions in Italy. The Duke of Savoy got Sicily, with the title of King, as a reward for his joining the allies; but a few years later he was persuaded by the Emperor to exchange it for

Sardinia, so his title was now King of Sardinia. The fortunes of the House of Savoy are interesting to follow, for it now reigns over a united kingdom of Italy; the present King is the grandson of the first King of Italy and the last King of Sardinia. Philip also had to renounce all claim to succeed in France; for the year before his elder brother, the heir to the French throne, had died, leaving only a sickly child of two years old. England, for all the money and lives she had expended, won her second object in the war, for Louis XIV. acknowledged the Protestant succession. She also kept her two conquests of Gibraltar and Minorca, which were important as stations for her fleet.

Though France seemed to have ended the war successfully, the great object of William III.'s life had been carried out by Marlborough. His victories had broken the power of France; she was no longer a danger to Europe. England really gained most by the war. She had risen from her low position under Charles II. to be again a great power. Holland was still further weakened by the war, and fell into the second rank. England was now the greatest naval power and trading state; France was second.

There had been fighting in America between the French and English colonists both in this and the last war, and indeed long before, in Charles I.'s reign. And by this treaty France gave up Nova Scotia, which had been colonised by both nations, and acknowledged our right to Newfoundland. Unfortunately we allowed the French some fishing rights on the Newfoundland coast, which were afterwards a great source of trouble, and were not settled till the beginning of the twentieth century. This fighting in America was the beginning of a great struggle between England and France for an oversea empire, which was fought out in the middle of the century.

Jacobite Hopes. Anne and her Brother.—The end of Anne's reign was taken up with the question of the suc-

cession to the throne. James Edward, known as the Chevalier de St. George, and by his enemies in England as the "Pretender," was now twenty-five years old. He had fought bravely for the French at the battles of Oudenarde and Malplaquet; but he had little ability, and, like his father, lacked the Stuart charm. Anne had been for some time in failing health, and it was known that she could not live very long. In her widowed and childless state she began to turn her thoughts towards her half-brother, whom she had never seen since his infancy. She was smitten with remorse at her conduct towards her father, and would have been glad to make amends by securing the throne to his son. Though the Tories had made Louis XIV. acknowledge the Protestant succession in the treaty, they did not like the prospect of a German sovereign. And there was a party among them who were plotting for the Pretender under the leadership of Bolingbroke; but Oxford, who corresponded both with the Pretender and Hanover, would not join him.

In 1711 the Pretender had written to Anne entreating her not to disinherit him in favour of a German princess. Her reply was that he should change his religion; Bolingbroke gave him the same advice. But he firmly refused. Had he become a Protestant there is little doubt that he would have gained the throne. So his refusal was very honourable to him.

The Whigs had for some time been openly looking to Hanover. Here is a song sung by Whig gentlemen on the Electress's birthday in 1712, standing with drawn swords round a bonfire in front of St. James's Palace:—

> "Over, over, Hanover, over;
> Haste and assist our Queen and our State.
> Haste over, Hanover, fast as you can over;
> Put in your claim before 'tis too late."

Anne, as a matter of fact, cordially hated her Hanoverian cousins; they seemed to her to be waiting for her death,

to step into her shoes. The old Electress, who was thirty years older than Anne, said one day, "I care not when I die, if it could be recorded on my tomb that I was Queen of England." This, of course, reached Anne's ears. A

The Electress Sophia.

Tory song-writer delighted her with the following song, for which she is said to have given him £50 :—

"The Crown 's far too weighty
For shoulders of eighty ;
She could not sustain such a trophy.
Her hand too already
Has grown so unsteady,
She can't hold a sceptre ;
So Providence kept her
Away, poor old dowager Sophy."

In the summer of 1714 the Electress wrote to Anne

suggesting that her grandson (afterwards George II.), who had been made Duke of Cambridge, should come over to England and take his seat in the House of Lords. Anne wrote an angry refusal, which upset the Electress so much that she was taken ill and died.

Death of Queen Anne. Bolingbroke outwitted and George I. proclaimed, August 1714.—But "poor old dowager Sophy" only missed the fulfilment of her wish by a few weeks. Anne had been seriously ill in the spring. She was greatly troubled by the quarrels between the two factions in the ministry, from which Bolingbroke was trying to drive Oxford; for the sovereign in those days presided at meetings of the ministers; and her mind was distressed between her duty to her brother and her duty to the country. On July 27 she at last dismissed Oxford from his post of treasurer. That evening the ministers met to decide on his successor. The quarrelling was as bad as ever, and went on for hours, till at two the next morning the poor Queen fainted. She was carried to her bed, where she lay weeping the rest of the night.

On July 29 it was known that her condition was hopeless. Bolingbroke and the Earl of Ormonde, the commander-in-chief, had begun their preparations, but were not ready. The Hanoverian ministers, led by the Duke of Shrewsbury, who had invited over William III., felt that something must be done. They turned to the Whigs. That evening the Council met to decide who was to be treasurer. Two Whig dukes, who were Privy Councillors, but not of course ministers, came and demanded admittance. Bolingbroke was taken by surprise, and allowed Shrewsbury, who had arranged it all, to let them in. Thus reinforced, the Hanoverian ministers carried a vote that Shrewsbury should be treasurer. Bolingbroke himself had to take him to the Queen's bedside, and she was just able to hand him the wand of office, bidding him use it for the good of her people. On August 1

she died; in her last hours she was continually moaning, "My brother! My poor brother!" Bolingbroke could not do anything. Shrewsbury had the Elector of Hanover proclaimed as King George; the proclamation was well received; and the Stuart line came to an end.

The danger had been very great; but it can hardly be imagined that, if the Pretender had been proclaimed, he could have kept the throne.

The Union of England and Scotland, 1707.—The reign of Anne is important not only for the war, but also for the Union of England and Scotland. James I., you will remember, had wished to unite the two countries, but had been unable, though he called himself King of Great Britain. England and Scotland remained separate countries under one ruler, except for a short time under Cromwell. At the beginning of Anne's reign the Scots were greatly irritated against England for various reasons. One was what is known as the Darien Scheme. In the reign of William III. the Scots, wishing to have colonies as well as England, sent a settlement to the Isthmus of Darien, now the Isthmus of Panama. As this was Spanish territory, the English government objected. However, the climate and the opposition of the Spaniards ruined the settlement. Much money was lost, and the Scots said it was owing to England's jealousy. So angry were they that they threatened not to accept the Act of Settlement.

The English ministry saw that the only course was to have a complete union. The Scots did not like it, for England was so much the larger and wealthier nation that they were afraid they would lose their nationality. But the English persisted, and at last an arrangement was agreed to, which was passed by the Scottish Parliament amid much opposition. The Scots were to send forty-five members to the House of Commons, and sixteen peers, elected by the whole body of peers, to the House of Lords. The numbers show how much more

populous England was than Scotland. Scotland was to keep the Presbyterian Church, and her own Courts of Law and administration of justice. Otherwise the two countries were to be as one. For a long time the Scots did not like the Union; but it has proved a great blessing to Scotland. The Scots have not lost their nationality, but they have become partners with the English, and everywhere throughout the Empire to-day the enterprising and industrious Scot is to the fore.

SUMMARY.

Marlborough ruler of England with a ministry of both parties—The war; Marlborough's difficulties, especially with the Dutch—Victory of Blenheim—Capture of Gibraltar—Victories of Ramillies and Oudenarde—Defeat in Spain—Louis XIV. offers peace—Tories leave the ministry and oppose the war—Anne growing tired of the Duchess of Marlborough; Mrs. Masham—Victory of Malplaquet; loss of Spain—Marlborough's slow advance—Unpopularity of the war; disgrace of the Duchess and fall of the Whigs—Tories negotiate for peace; Marlborough's last campaign and disgrace—England deserts the allies—Treaty of Utrecht—Anne's illness and feeling for the Pretender; her hatred of Hanover—Tories under Bolingbroke intrigue for the Pretender—Anne's last Council and its results—Bolingbroke outwitted; proclamation of George I.—Union with Scotland.

DATES.

1704. Battle of Blenheim and capture of Gibraltar.
1707. Union with Scotland.

THE STUART LINE

James I.,
1603-1625.

Charles I.,
1625-1649.

Charles II.,
1660-1685.
o

James II.,
1685-1688
(died 1701).

Mary,
1689-1694,
m. **William III.**,
1689-1702.
o

Anne,
1702-1714,
no surviving
children.

James Edward,
the "Old Pretender"
(died 1766).

Charles Edward,
the "Young Pretender"
(died 1788).

DESCENT OF THE HANOVERIAN LINE

James I.

Elizabeth = Elector Palatine.

Sophia = Elector of Hanover.
(died 1714).

George, Elector of Hanover, 1698-1727.
George I., King of Great Britain, 1714-1727.

CHAPTER XLVIII

The House of Hanover, 1714 to Present Day

(Hanover was united to Great Britain by the Crown till 1837)

George I., 1714-1727

The House of Hanover.—George I., Elector of Hanover, was fifty-four when he became King of England in accordance with the Act of Settlement, four years older than Queen Anne; he was born in the Restoration year, the day before Charles II. entered London. With George I. began the dynasty which still rules Great Britain. The family was a very old German house, named Guelph or Welf. The Guelph family goes back to the Duke of Saxony, who married Richard Cœur de Lion's sister, and befriended him in his imprisonment. Owing to their rivalry to the emperors of that day, the Guelphs lost all their possessions except the Duchy of Brunswick, which included what was afterwards Hanover. So the family is also called the House of Brunswick. Afterwards it divided into two branches, the elder having Brunswick, and the younger Hanover. You will hear of Brunswick occasionally in this history; and at the present day there is still a reigning Duke of Brunswick of this family; but Hanover itself is part of Prussia.

Hanover, which takes its name from its chief city, was a small territory in north-west Germany (map, p. 700), less than half the size of Ireland. The city itself is nowadays a bright little town, containing many fine old houses. Three miles out is Herrenhausen, the old palace of the

Electors, which is still kept up, with its gardens. In the stables of Herrenhausen the same breed of cream-coloured horses may be seen that our sovereigns use on state occasions; for it was George I. who introduced them into England. An interesting fact about Hanover is that the best German is said to be spoken there, so nowadays there are always many English there learning the language.

George I. as King.—George I. was well received when

Herrenhausen.
The old palace of the Electors of Hanover.

he arrived in England; it was plain that the bulk of the country was in favour of the Protestant succession, especially the commercial classes. Personally he was an unattractive, overbearing, and ill-tempered man. He had quarrelled with his wife many years before, and shut her up in a castle, where she still was in captivity; and he also quarrelled with his son, afterwards George II. He was neither a great statesman nor a great soldier, though

he sometimes commanded the Hanoverian army in the recent wars.

As an unattractive elderly German who could not speak English, George I. was not likely to be any more popular than William III. However, he did not trouble his new subjects much. He cared for his new kingdom only so far as it was useful to Hanover. He returned as often as he

George I

could to his beloved Herrenhausen, and left British home affairs to his ministers. Britain and Hanover, though under one crown, were far more separate than England and Scotland had been. Hanover does not concern our history except when it dragged us into foreign complications.

As he could not speak English, it was useless for George

to preside at the meetings of ministers, "Cabinet Councils" as they are called. And from this time it ceased to be the practice. Thus the accession of the House of Hanover still further weakened the power of the sovereign, and so helped the Revolution settlement. In Hanover, on the other hand, George, like other continental princes, ruled as a despotic sovereign.

The Whigs return to Power. Flight of Bolingbroke.—As the Whigs had always been on the Hanoverian side, George I. naturally chose a Whig ministry. And at the new elections, at the beginning of 1715, the Whigs had a large majority. In fact, for over forty years, as long as there was any danger from the Jacobites, the Tories remained in a minority.

The Duke of Marlborough was made commander-in-chief again; but he was not in the ministry, for George did not trust him. Very soon he was seized with an illness that affected his brain, and after lingering some years he died in 1722. His duchess lived for twenty years longer.

The Whigs at once resolved to impeach the Tory leaders for their conduct in making the Treaty of Utrecht. Bolingbroke and Ormonde fled abroad to the Pretender. Oxford stood his ground; he was only put in the Tower, and released in a few years.

The Jacobites. Death of Louis XIV., 1715.—Bolingbroke at once began to arrange a Jacobite rising. Unfortunately for him Louis XIV., who, in spite of the Treaty of Utrecht, promised his aid, died in September 1715 at the age of seventy-seven; he had reigned seventy-two years, the longest reign in history, and had seen seven sovereigns in England and the Commonwealth. His last years had been sad, both owing to the French defeats and also to deaths in his family. He had lost his only son, and two grandsons, brothers of Philip of Spain. His great-grandson, who succeeded as Louis XV., was only five, and a cousin, the Duke of Orleans, was Regent. He was the

next heir to the throne, as Philip of Spain had renounced his rights. But he did not trust Philip, and thought it safer to be friendly with England. So the Jacobites lost the aid of France.

The Jacobite Rising, 1715 (the "Fifteen").—Bolingbroke now thought that the attempt should be given up, but the Pretender persisted. The Earl of Mar proclaimed him as James VIII. and III. in the Highlands, and was soon at the head of a large but ill-armed army of clansmen. The British army had, as usual, been greatly reduced after the peace, so fresh forces had to be raised. The Duke of Argyll, who had distinguished himself in the late war, was sent to take command in Scotland, and occupied Stirling with a small force to prevent the rebels crossing the Forth. In the Lowlands only two peers rose. They crossed the border with their followers to join the English rebels. These were only some Roman Catholic gentlemen of the north. An amusing, but perhaps exaggerated, account of these northern Jacobites—rough, hard-drinking, fox-hunting squires—is given by Sir Walter Scott in his novel of *Rob Roy*, a famous Highland rebel of the Macgregor clan.

Battle of Sheriffmuir and end of the Rising.—None of the Jacobite leaders showed any skill in war. The Earl of Mar for a long time lay at Perth; at last in November a battle took place at Sheriffmuir, a few miles north of Stirling. On one wing the Highlanders, led by Mar, put Argyll's men to flight with the usual fierce charge. On the other Argyll with his cavalry put the Highlanders to flight. So the battle was drawn, as an old Scottish song says:—

> "There 's some say that we wan, and some say that they wan,
> And some say that nane wan at a', man;
> But ane thing I 'm sure, that at Sheriffmuir
> A battle there was that I saw, man."

Mar, instead of continuing the fight, went back to Perth, and the Highlanders were so discouraged that the battle was as good as a victory to Argyll.

On the same day the Jacobites south of the border, who had reached Preston in Lancashire (where Cromwell beat the Scots), were attacked and forced to surrender by two royal armies. Under these depressing circumstances the Pretender landed in December, and joined his army at Perth. He was crowned at Scone, where the Scottish

Prince James Edward, the "Old Pretender."

kings used to be crowned; but he was not the man to inspire the drooping spirits of the Highlanders. And when in January 1716 Argyll advanced north, he and Mar secretly left the army and took ship for France; the Highlanders, deserted by their King, dispersed; and the rising was over.

Punishment of the Rebels. Escape of Lord Nithsdale.—The Preston prisoners were brought to London in a long

procession. About a thousand of the common prisoners were allowed to go to the American plantations, and a few others were put to death.

Seven leaders were condemned to be beheaded. Great efforts were made to save their lives. For two, Lords Derwentwater and Nithsdale, their wives appealed to George on their knees with tears. Sixty thousand pounds were offered for Lord Derwentwater's life. But George would only pardon three of the least important. Lady Nithsdale, instead of losing heart, now planned a clever plot. She was allowed to visit her husband at the Tower with one friend. One day she came very cheerful, assured the guards that a pardon was coming, and gave them money for drink. The next day she came with two ladies. She went into the cell with the first, who had an extra costume concealed on her person. She then took her out, and brought in the second, who was in a cloak and hood, and held her handkerchief to her face, as if in grief. This lady gave her costume to Lord Nithsdale, put on the extra costume, and then was conducted out by Lady Nithsdale. Then Lady Nithsdale dressed her husband, disguised his face, and led him out in the cloak and hood, with his handkerchief to his face. The sentries, off their guard, and confused by the coming and going of the ladies, let him pass. Lady Nithsdale handed her husband to a third lady waiting outside, who drove off with him; then she went back to the cell, and after pretending to talk with her husband and bid him farewell, went away herself. By the time the cell was found to be empty, Lord Nithsdale was safe in hiding in London. Soon he found a means of reaching Dover. The Venetian ambassador was sending his carriage there to meet a friend, and one of the servants was bribed to take him with them disguised as a footman. From Dover he crossed the Channel. Some other leaders also escaped; and in the end only two peers, the Earl of Derwentwater and Lord Kenmure, suffered death.

The Pretender was not allowed to be in France, so he went to Rome, where he was given an allowance by the Pope. Lord Nithsdale went to Rome, where he was joined by his wife; and they lived there till their deaths, some thirty years later.

This Jacobite rebellion, known afterwards as the "Fifteen," had accidentally one important result. The Whigs were afraid that its effects might be felt at the next elections, though they were not due for two years. So they passed a law, which George accepted, that Parliament might last for seven years instead of only three. This law, called the "Septennial Act," remained in force till 1911, when the time was altered to five years; and, as a matter of fact, Parliaments have seldom lasted longer.

Jacobite Plots and European Troubles.—Though France was against them, the Jacobite plotters found fresh friends in Spain and Sweden. Philip of Spain had a very able minister, who was scheming to get back the Spanish possessions in Italy, given up by the Treaty of Utrecht. Sweden was under Charles XII., a great soldier, but so reckless that he was called the "Madman of the North." He would have been very useful in the late war had he not been fighting with Russia, which, under its famous Czar, Peter the Great, was now becoming a great nation. Charles XII. had a quarrel with George I., who had bought some territory from Denmark which Charles XII. claimed. It was being dragged into foreign quarrels in this way for the sake of Hanover that the British so much disliked.

However, Charles XII. was killed fighting in Norway. Spain sent an expedition to Scotland under the Duke of Ormonde, but it was scattered by a storm, and came to nothing. Britain did not want another big war, nor did France. So they made an alliance; the British fleet was sent to the Mediterranean, and destroyed the Spanish fleet off Cape Passaro in Sicily, and a French army invaded Spain. Philip had to give in. War was prevented, and

Britain was safe from the Jacobites till she got into another war.

Sir Robert Walpole's Ministry.—The chief minister during the last half of the reign was Sir Robert Walpole. He was a burly country gentleman of Norfolkshire, but a shrewd, sensible man, very clever about money, a good speaker, and knew how to manage the House of Commons. But in the ministry he was determined to have his own way, and quarrelled with his colleagues who opposed him. So the other leading Whigs gradually left him, and formed a party against him in the Commons in alliance with the Tories. Walpole's one aim was to keep Britain at peace. He knew that a foreign war would be the signal for a new Jacobite rebellion, and that the country wanted peace to recover from the recent long wars, and to settle down under the new form of government. He was not vindictive against the Jacobites. He did indeed banish the Bishop of Rochester for plotting, but he allowed Bolingbroke, who had quarrelled with the Pretender, to return to England. Bolingbroke received back some of his property, but was not allowed to sit in the House of Lords. So he started a newspaper, in which he helped the opposition against Walpole. He lived till nearly the end of the next reign, but he had little influence. George I. died very suddenly in 1727, being taken ill in his carriage while travelling in Hanover. It is said that his illness was caused by receiving a letter, written by his wife just before her death, summoning him to meet her in the other world.

SUMMARY.

The House of Hanover and its territory—George's accession; its effect on the monarchy—Beginning of long Whig rule—Jacobite rising (the "Fifteen"); battle of Sheriffmuir—Executions; escape of Lord Nithsdale—Troubles in Europe and Jacobite intrigues—Sir Robert Walpole, the peace minister.

DATE.

1715. Jacobite Rising (the "Fifteen").

CHAPTER XLIX

George II., 1727-1760

(I)

Beginning of the Oversea Duel between Britain and France

George II. and Queen Caroline.—George II. was nearly forty-four when he became King. He was more popular than his father, having lived in England thirteen years as Prince of Wales. He could speak English, though badly. He was a little man, and made himself rather ridiculous by his dignified, pompous airs and a fiery little temper. As a soldier he had shown great bravery at Oudenarde. As a king he followed in his father's footsteps.

In one point he differed from his father: he was very fond of his wife, Caroline of Anspach. Queen Caroline was a far more interesting person than her husband. She was the daughter of the Margrave of Anspach, a tiny German state, now part of Bavaria. So beautiful and clever was she that the Archduke Charles of Austria wanted to marry her. As she was a Protestant, a priest was sent to convert her. German princesses were generally ready to take their future husbands' religion. But Caroline could not be tempted even by so splendid a marriage. She naturally could not beat the priest in argument, and so their discussions generally reduced her to tears. But she stood firm, and in the end married the son of the Elector of Hanover. The marriage took place in 1707, when they were both twenty-four years of age.

She managed George so cleverly that she had great influence over him. But his father feared and disliked

George II., in his royal robes.

her, and this was one reason why he quarrelled with his son.

Walpole kept in Office by the influence of Queen Caroline.—Walpole was afraid that the death of George I. would put an end to his power. So he rode down to Richmond Lodge, the Prince's country residence, to announce the news himself. The Prince was having his afternoon nap; but Walpole insisted on being shown into the bedroom, and made his announcement on bended knee. "Dat is one big lie" was the new King's first answer.

As he had expected, Walpole was dismissed; but his successor had to obtain his aid in composing the King's speech to Parliament; and Caroline was convinced he was necessary to the welfare of the country. So in a few days he was minister again, and Caroline firmly supported him to the day of her death. This made her unpopular with Walpole's opponents, as the following rhymes of the day show. It is to be hoped they did not reach the royal ears:—

> "Since England was England, there never was seen
> So strutting a King and so prating a Queen";

and

> "You may strut, dapper George, but 'twill all be in vain;
> We know 'tis Queen Caroline, not you that reign;
> Then, if you would have us fall down and adore you,
> Lock up your fat spouse, as your dad did before you."

Queen Caroline, it seems, was suffering from stoutness with her advancing years. But her mind was as keen as ever, and she loved to talk with clever and learned men, so she is called "prating."

Walpole keeps Britain out of European Troubles.—For more than ten years Walpole kept England out of actual war. But France was no longer friendly; for as the sickly child, Louis XV., had grown up, married, and had a son, there was no longer any danger of Philip of Spain claiming the French crown. So the two Bourbon kings made a "Family Compact" to help one another. As France had a quarrel of her own with Austria, and Spain still was bent on recovering Naples and Sicily, a European

war broke out in 1733. Walpole kept England out of it, in spite of the Emperor's entreaty for aid. He was able to say to the Queen, "This year, madam, fifty thousand men have been slain in Europe, and not one Englishman." Finally, he was able to induce the combatants to make peace. Austria had the worst of the war, and had to give some territory to France, and Naples and Sicily to Spain.

Prince Eugène fought his last campaign in this war, dying at the age of over seventy, when commanding on the Rhine.

Frederick Prince of Wales. Death of Queen Caroline, 1737.—George I., you will remember, disliked his son and heir. But George II. absolutely detested his eldest son Frederick, as did Queen Caroline and the other princes and princesses. They would often openly express a wish that he would drop down dead. And the Queen, we are told, said in not very pretty language, "My dear first-born is the greatest ass, and the greatest liar, and the greatest beast in the whole world, and I most heartily wish he were out of it." Frederick was weak and foolish, and tried to make himself popular in opposition to the King; but there must have been some other unknown cause for their furious hatred. On his marriage in 1736 to a German princess, at the age of twenty-nine, he set up a court of his own, to which all the opponents of Walpole crowded.

To George's great sorrow, Caroline died in 1737. She was only fifty-four. She suffered much from gout in her feet, and one day, wishing to be able to walk with the King, she put her feet into cold water. This was the worst thing she could have done, as it killed her, after great suffering. Even on her deathbed she would not forgive the Prince of Wales, and he openly expressed his joy at her illness. "Now we shall have some good news," he used to say; "she cannot hold out much longer." These stories of the Queen and Prince of Wales are from the memoirs of a spiteful courtier, and we must hope that they are, at least, exaggerated.

Britain growing hostile to France and Spain.—The Queen's death was a great blow to Walpole. He had now been chief minister for sixteen years, and the longer he

Sir Robert Walpole.
He is in an artist's studio having his portrait painted.

ruled the stronger his opponents grew. George II., however, continued to support him, and he struggled on for a few more years. What overthrew him in the end was the rise of a war spirit in Britain. His peace policy had now done its work. Britain was strong and prosperous,

and on the whole contented. But a quarrel was coming on both with Spain about our trade with Spanish America, and with France owing to our rivalry in North America and India. We are approaching the time when Britain was to fight France for oversea empire. It is one of the most exciting periods in our history, and before starting to describe it we must see how matters stood in those two parts of the world.

The thirteen American Colonies (map, p. 753).—The British colonies in America now numbered thirteen. There were four in New England, in the north; Massachusetts, to which Plymouth was now joined, was the chief. In the centre were New York and Pennsylvania, with two others. In the south, Maryland, Virginia, Carolina, now divided into two, and Georgia. This had been recently founded, and was named after George II.; the settlers at first were people who had got into trouble from debt. The three chief towns in the colonies were the ports of Boston, capital of Massachusetts, New York, and Philadelphia, capital of Pennsylvania.

North of New England, Nova Scotia was still mainly inhabited by French, who were encouraged by their priests in discontent with British rule. It was held by a few forts. The cold and barren island of Newfoundland had very few inhabitants; in the summer it was visited by British fishermen, and by French on the shore granted to them by the Treaty of Utrecht. Far away on Hudson Bay, north of Canada, were the few forts of the fur traders of the Hudson Bay Company. This settlement and Newfoundland had no part in the coming struggle.

The thirteen colonies, which now had over a million inhabitants, formed a strip of British territory all down the coast to Florida, then a Spanish colony, in the south. Inland, from a hundred to a hundred and fifty miles from the coast, they were shut in by a wild forest and mountainous country—the range of the Alleghanies, which separated them from Canada and the Great Lakes. In this

wild country and beyond were the scattered tribes of Red Indians, fierce and treacherous, but mostly friendly to the two white nations, and taking part in their quarrels.

The British colonists were slowly making their way inland, clearing the forest as they advanced. This work was being done by adventurers known as "backwoodsmen," mostly trappers of fur animals. The Indians were the great danger; many a trapper returning to his log-hut after his day's work found that some hostile "braves" had been on the war-path, and had left a heap of smoking ruins and the corpses of his wife and children.

Rivalry between the British and French.—Adventurous traders, too, were pushing across the Alleghanies, and the New Yorkers had recently established a fort on Lake Ontario. This brings us to the real cause of the quarrel between the French and British in America, which was who should possess the vast inland country watered by the Mississippi. The French in Canada were not more than fifty thousand in number; Canada in those days was only a strip of country on the banks of the St. Lawrence, with Quebec and Montreal for its chief towns.

But, while the British had the mountains to cross, the St. Lawrence and the Great Lakes gave the French an easy route into the interior. In the last century adventurers, many of them Jesuit missionaries, had explored the Lakes in their canoes, built forts on their banks, and more or less converted the Indian tribes in those parts. From the Lakes they had dragged their canoes to the streams that run into the Mississippi, and so at last reached its mouth, in the Gulf of Mexico, fifteen hundred miles from Canada. They had made more than one attempt to found a settlement in the hot swamps at the Mississippi mouth. But they were not successful till the beginning of Louis XV.'s reign. The colony was called Louisiana after the King, and was supposed to extend over the whole Mississippi valley. New Orleans, named after the Regent, was the chief settlement. As the French were too few to occupy the

fifteen hundred miles, the far more numerous British had no intention of being shut out.

Just at present, however, the British were mostly alarmed about the north. For the French, after losing Nova Scotia, had occupied the neighbouring island of Cape Breton, and strongly fortified the port of Louisburg there, to guard the mouth of the St. Lawrence. The only way to Canada by land was up the Hudson River, and then by a long narrow lake, called Lake Champlain. This way, of which you will hear a good deal later, was very difficult, and the French had forts on Lake Champlain.

The Colonies and the Mother Country.—The British colonies had suffered a good deal from the home troubles of the last century, the southern colonies from the Commonwealth, Puritan New England from the restored monarchy. But by this time they had their own assemblies, under a governor sent from home, except Georgia, which had not reached that stage. They were very independent in character, and often quarrelled with their governors. The home government, after the ideas of those days, considered that the colonies existed for the benefit of the mother country. The British Parliament considered that it had a right to control their trade and tax them. But Walpole had thought it wiser not to exercise these rights, so they had fallen into disuse. And at this time the colonists were kept loyal by their fear of the French.

India and its unsettled condition (map, p. 750).—India, it is well to understand, is not a country, but a little continent containing many races. There are two chief races and religions in it, the Hindoos and Mohammedans, but there are in parts savage tribes who were there before the Hindoos. How long ago the Hindoos came we do not know, except that it was during the "prehistoric age" in Britain. But they certainly came as conquering invaders. The Hindoos and the Chinese are the two ancient civilised races of eastern Asia. When the Mohammedan religion had spread in northern Asia during our Saxon times, the

Mohammedans began to attack India. More than one conqueror established himself there, but they could not make the Hindoos give up their religion. The last of these invaders, the "Moguls," came just after the Portuguese had found their way to India. With their capital at Delhi, they gradually extended their sway over the whole country; their king was known to us as the Mogul.

But at the beginning of the eighteenth century the last of the great Mogul rulers had died. His successors were feeble, and gradually lost their power. The rulers of the various provinces—Rajahs, Nabobs, and the like—were now really independent, like the dukes and counts in feudal Europe. They often fought among themselves. Thus India was now in a state of confusion; and this gave a chance to the European companies to interfere in their quarrels, and so increase their own power.

Position of the British and French Companies in India.—Since the East India Company had gone to India in James I.'s reign, it had prospered greatly and started more factories. Calcutta, Madras, and Bombay, now the capitals of our three Indian presidencies, were the chief stations. Madras had been bought in Charles I.'s reign, and became the centre of our trade on the south-east coast; it was a strip of coast-land six miles long; and a fort had been built. Bombay, as you read, part of the dowry of Charles II.'s Portuguese Queen, had been granted by him to the Company. Being an island, it was safer from attack than Surat, the original factory, so the headquarters of the Company were transferred to it. Calcutta, in the north-east, was started in William III.'s reign on the Hooghly, one of the mouths of the Ganges. As in the case of Madras, a strip of land was bought and a fort built.

In each of these chief factories there was a governor representing the Company, a small force of white soldiers, and also native soldiers known as Sepoys. The Company sent its merchandise backwards and forwards in armed

merchantmen, called "East Indiamen." These forts, soldiers, and armed ships were simply for protection; the Company at this time had no idea of interfering with the native states: they were traders, and nothing else.

The French, in their turn, had started an India Company in the early part of Louis XIV.'s reign, and had several factories; the chief was Pondicherry, fifty miles south of Madras. They, too, at present confined themselves only to trade. So hitherto there had only been commercial rivalry between the two Companies.

The Dutch Company had also a few factories, but their chief Eastern trade was still with the Spice Islands. The Portuguese still possessed their chief Indian settlement, Goa, on the west coast, and hold it even at the present day; but their power in the East was gone.

War with Spain, 1739. Anson's Cruise round the World.—Our quarrel with Spain came on before that with France. Spain had agreed to allow us to send one ship only a year to the Gulf of Mexico to trade with her colonies; but this arrangement was broken by our traders. Those who were caught were cruelly punished. One captain, called Jenkins, declared that his ear was cut off. This caused great excitement in Britain. Walpole tried in vain to settle the difficulty, and at last in 1739 he was forced to declare war. The nation was delighted, and the church bells were rung. "They are ringing their bells now; they will be wringing their hands soon," said Walpole. We began this war, which has been nicknamed the "War for Jenkins' Ear," by raids like Drake's on Spain's American possessions. Admiral Vernon, who had been loud in his abuse of Walpole, was sent to the Gulf of Mexico, and was lucky to capture Portobello (the "fine port") on the Isthmus of Panama, which was unprepared for an attack. There was great triumph at this in England. But Vernon was really incompetent, and though large forces were sent out to him he failed in all his other attacks, and on

his return home spent his days in quarrelling with the government.

In September 1740 Commodore Anson was sent with five ships, a small sloop, and two provision ships to raid the Pacific. He sailed round Cape Horn, instead of through the Strait of Magellan like Drake. He, too, was troubled with storms; two of his ships missed him and turned back, one was lost, the others were abandoned. He lost many men from scurvy, which comes from the want of fresh provisions, and was a great trouble in the navy in old days. However, he captured some prizes on the Pacific coast; then in April 1742, with his own ship only, the *Centurion* of sixty guns, he, like Drake, crossed the Pacific. In 1743 he captured a rich treasure ship from the Philippines, and reached home in the summer of 1744, having sailed round the world.

The War of the Austrian Succession. Maria Theresa of Austria and Frederick of Prussia.—These were all the important events in our war with Spain. But other troubles began in Europe which dragged us into a Continental war, known as the "War of the Austrian Succession." In 1740 the Emperor, the Archduke Charles who had claimed the Spanish throne, died. He had no sons, and no other male heir; but he had obtained the agreement of the other powers that his elder daughter, the beautiful and high-spirited Maria Theresa, should succeed to all his dominions.

The first disturber of peace was Frederick, King of Prussia, afterwards known as "the Great." His father, Frederick William, the second King of Prussia, died this same year. Frederick William, by his wise and frugal government, had made Prussia the strongest state in Germany after Austria, with a well-drilled army of seventy thousand men. He was George II.'s brother-in-law; but they disliked one another personally, and George was jealous of Prussia being stronger than Hanover. Frederick, a young man of twenty-eight at his accession, determined

to use his fine army to make Prussia still greater, and in the winter, without declaring war, he suddenly marched into Silesia, an Austrian province south of Prussia, shown on the map on p. 700, to which he had a very doubtful claim. Maria Theresa was naturally very angry; but when the Austrians marched against Frederick they were beaten more than once.

Then the other powers forgot their promise, and fell upon Maria Theresa. Spain wanted her possessions in Italy; France wanted the Netherlands, which she had so often attacked when they belonged to Spain. The Elector of Bavaria wanted to have Bohemia, and also to be Emperor. George II., as Elector of Hanover, was loyal to Maria Theresa, taking her side against Prussia; but for the sake of Hanover he, as well as Walpole, wanted to keep out of the war. Walpole helped Maria Theresa with money, but advised her to give up Silesia to Frederick, so as to be free to fight her other enemies. The British were eager for war with France, and were angry with Walpole for the failures against Spain. So in 1742 the elections went against Walpole, and at last he resigned. Some of the Whig leaders opposed to him came into the ministry, but there was no single statesman as powerful as he had been. George II. created him Earl of Orford, and still looked to him for advice. He died three years later.

Britain joins in the War, 1743. Battle of Dettingen.— Maria Theresa's husband, a German duke, was a man of no powers, and she had to depend on herself. She made a special appeal to her Hungarian subjects in the Assembly of Nobles at Pesth. The story is that she came into the Assembly, clad in mourning for her father, with her baby son in her arms; and the nobles waved their swords, and shouted, "We will die for our *King*, Maria Theresa." She drove back the French and Bavarians, but she could not drive Frederick from Silesia or prevent the Elector of Bavaria being elected Emperor. In 1743 Britain under the new ministry joined in the war.

George II. himself, now sixty years old, took command of a force of British, Hanoverians, and other Germans, paid for with British money. He was not a great general, and when he was marching up the river Maine to join the Austrians the French general caught him in what he called a "mouse trap" between some difficult hills and the river. George first found his advance blocked; then when he retreated he found another force in his path posted in a strong position at a village, called Dettingen, behind a marshy stream. The rest of the French army was on the other side of the Maine. The allies were in danger of being starved into surrender. Fortunately the general at Dettingen stupidly left his position and attacked the allies. The result was that he was badly beaten before the main French army could come to his aid, and George escaped from the "mouse trap." Then an Austrian army came up, and the French retreated across the Rhine.

The battle of Dettingen is famous as the last battle in which a British king was in command.

Battle of Fontenoy. Jacobite Rising under the "Young Pretender" (the "Forty-five"), 1745.—Walpole's fear that a war with France would cause a Jacobite rising proved true. The French soon prepared an expedition at Dunkirk, but owing to a storm and the watchfulness of the British fleet nothing came of it. The next year (1745) the French, under a very able general, the Marshal Saxe, attacked the Austrian Netherlands. The allies were under George's second son, the Duke of Cumberland, a brave but poor general. At Fontenoy he attacked Saxe, who had more men and a strong position. The British and Hanoverian infantry forced their way right through the French centre, and Marshal Saxe thought the battle lost. But the allies did not back them up in other parts of the field; so Saxe was able to bring more troops and guns against them, and they were forced to retreat, with heavy loss. So the French won the battle, but the British infantry gained great glory.

The Pretender's son, Prince Charles Edward, the "Young Pretender," now twenty-five years old, was bitterly disappointed when the French gave up the expedition. He resolved himself to strike a blow for his father in Scotland. He sailed in the summer from a port in the Bay of Biscay in a small vessel, accompanied by a warship with arms supplied by the French government. Unfortunately for him, they met a British warship. He sailed off; the two warships had a fierce fight; and the French ship was so damaged that it had to return to port. So the Prince lost his supply of arms. On July 25 he landed in Moidart, the south-west corner of Inverness. He had only seven followers, who were known as the "Seven Men of Moidart." For some time no clan would join him. At last he won over one important chief; others followed, and three weeks after he landed he raised the standard of "James VIII." Handsome, charming in manner, brave and strong in limb, and always ready to rough it with his men, "Prince Charlie," as he was called, soon won the hearts of the Highlanders. He knew something of war too, for he had fought for the French against Austria in Italy.

The Young Pretender's Victory of Prestonpans.—At the head of about two thousand men, the Prince began his march on Edinburgh. Sir John Cope commanded about three thousand men in Scotland; he marched up against the rebels through the Pass of Killiecrankie, the scene of Dundee's victory. But he feared a battle among the mountains, and turned off towards Inverness. The Prince thus reached Edinburgh unopposed, and entered it on September 17. The next day Cope arrived by sea at Dunbar, and marched as far as Prestonpans, a village on the coast about ten miles from Edinburgh. On the 19th his camp was surprised by the Prince in a mist. As at Killiecrankie, the regulars were at once broken by the Highland charge; and Cope, unlike Mackay, rode off as far as Berwick, where he was the first to bring the news of his own defeat.

Prince Charles Edward, the "Young Pretender," in Highland dress
Painted when he was in France,

The Young Pretender at Edinburgh. He invades England.—The Prince now wanted to march straight into England. But he was persuaded to wait at Edinburgh that more clans might join him. So for six weeks he kept Court at Holyrood Palace. The people of Edinburgh, who had never had a Court in their city since the Restoration, and were still sore over the Union, were charmed by the Prince's gracious manners. There were balls and festivities; and the Prince danced with the young ladies, who became enthusiastic Jacobites, and won over their parents to the cause.

The delay gave the government time to bring over troops from the Netherlands under the Duke of Cumberland. At the end of October the Prince at last started for England at the head of five thousand men. There was already an army at Newcastle, so he took the western road by Carlisle. He hoped the Jacobites of the north of England would rally to his standard, but only a couple of hundred men appeared. He met, however, with no opposition. The country people gazed open-mouthed at the strange sight of the wild Highlanders marching to the savage music of the bagpipes. Cumberland was in Staffordshire, the Newcastle army was advancing south, and the guards and train-bands were camped at Finchley, north of London, to protect the capital.

The Prince cleverly eluded Cumberland, and reached Derby on December 4. The news caused the wildest alarm in London, and the day was known as "Black Friday." George II., however, was no coward. "Pooh! don't talk to me that stuff" was his answer to alarmists. But beyond Derby the enemy never came. The Prince saw that a dash on London was his only chance, unless the French landed. But his officers declared it was too dangerous, as the English Jacobites had not risen, and that the best course was to retreat to Scotland and get more troops. Bitterly disappointed, the Prince gave in, and ordered the retreat.

Battle of Culloden, April 1746.—In January 1746 he won one more victory over the Newcastle army at Falkirk, where Edward I. had beaten Wallace, but on the approach of Cumberland he retired north to Inverness. On Culloden Moor, six miles from Inverness, in the following April, the Stuart cause met its death-blow. Cumberland had spent the winter at Aberdeen, training his army to fight the Highlanders. The Prince had increased his

March of the troops to Finchley.
The artist, Hogarth, was fond of painting the faults of his day; this picture, we may hope, was an exaggeration.

numbers, but his army was suffering from want, and disheartened.

When Cumberland, who had twice his numbers and several cannons, approached, the Prince tried to surprise his camp by a night march, but missed the way. So he had to fight a regular battle with wearied men. Cumberland drew up his infantry in two lines, each four deep. The Highlanders broke two regiments in the front line. But the Macdonalds, angry at being placed on the left

instead of the right, the place of honour, refused to charge at all; and the second line stood firm. Beaten back by the infantry, the clansmen were swept off the field by the cavalry, leaving a thousand dead behind them.

Cruel suppression of the Rebellion. Wanderings and escape of the Young Pretender.—The Prince, without money or supplies, gave up the struggle after this defeat, and ordered the clansmen to disperse to their homes. For months they were hunted down like wild beasts by order of Cumberland, who was consequently called the "Butcher" by the Scots. The Prince escaped to the Western High-

Culloden Moor. The graves of the clans.

lands, and thence to the Hebrides. Though there was a reward of £30,000 for his capture, no one betrayed him. Aided by a Highland lady, Flora Macdonald, who dressed him up as her maid-servant, he reached the Isle of Skye. Even there soldiers were on the look-out, and he wandered about in a most pitiable plight. At one time he stayed in a cave with some robbers; then he found some of his followers, and lived with them on the mountain-side. At last, five months after the battle of Culloden, a French ship appeared off the coast, and took him to France. Four leading men were tried and executed; one died in prison, and one was pardoned; even Flora Macdonald was arrested, and kept for a short time in the Tower.

The Naval and Oversea War. Loss of Madras and capture of Louisburg.—At sea, and in America and India, little vigour was shown at first. The year after Dettingen a battle was fought off Toulon; but it was indecisive, as the admiral was not properly supported by his second in command. So there were several trials by court-martial; the admiral and some commanders were dismissed from the navy, but the second in command was acquitted. In 1745, indeed, a squadron was sent to America which enabled the New Englanders to take Louisburg, but that was all the ministry did for them.

In India the French Company had a very able governor, the Marquis Dupleix, who was making it powerful by gaining influence with the Mogul and other princes. In 1746 the British admiral at Madras feebly allowed himself to be driven off the coast, and Dupleix attacked and took Madras. However, in Europe that year and the next two French fleets were caught and badly beaten by superior British fleets, one under Admiral Anson, the other under the afterwards famous Admiral Hawke. The French navy was ruined, and a large British fleet was sent out to India with troops. The admiral besieged Pondicherry, but Dupleix held out vigorously; and after seven weeks' fighting, and a loss of two thousand men, stormy weather compelled the fleet to withdraw, and the siege was given up.

Victories of Marshal Saxe. End of the War, 1748.—In the European land war Marshal Saxe won two more victories in 1746 and 1747, and conquered all the Austrian Netherlands. In the second battle the Duke of Cumberland again commanded the allies. But Maria Theresa's husband had been elected Emperor, as the Elector of Bavaria had died, and his son was content with Bavaria. She had also been victorious in Italy, but had been obliged finally to give up Silesia to Frederick, for which she was vowing vengeance in her heart. Every one was tired of the war, especially the French, who had suffered so severely at sea. So peace was made in 1748, and all conquests were given

back; therefore, greatly to their disgust, Dupleix had to give up Madras, and the American colonists Louisburg. Nothing was settled with Spain about the trading. The first round in our duel with France had ended in a draw, but Britain still was supreme at sea.

Suppression of the Highland Clans. The latter days of the Young Pretender.—After the end of the "Forty-five" the British government did what they ought to have done before: they put an end to the clans by depriving the chiefs of their power and setting up magistrates in their place over the country. The wearing of the kilt was also forbidden.

So the old days of the half-independent, marauding clans came to an end; law and order reigned among the mountains; the clansmen settled down as peasants, and the chiefs as country gentlemen. But the end had been glorious. The fighting quality of the clansmen had been proved as never before. It was a pity it should be lost to the nation; soon Highland regiments were raised; the wearing of the kilt was again permitted; and the kilt and bagpipes have been in the forefront of our fighting in all parts of the world. The old bitterness passed away. A century later Queen Victoria built herself a Highland home, Balmoral Castle, in Aberdeenshire. A royal tartan was made for her dependants there to wear; she dressed her young sons in kilts, and for many years English mothers followed the fashion.

The end of "Prince Charlie" was a sad one. The French gave up his cause as hopeless. From time to time he plotted, without any result, and once or twice he is said to have come secretly to London. Broken by failure, he sought relief in drink and dissipation. He died at Rome forty years after the rebellion, without any children. His father had died twenty years before him, and his only brother, who became a cardinal in the Church of Rome, twenty years after him. So the Stuart line came to an end. But "Prince Charlie" has never been forgotten

in Scotland; he is still thought of as the hero of the great days of the "Forty-five." His memory has inspired many a beautiful Jacobite song. Here is a verse of one on his escape, written by a Scottish lady of rank soon after his death:—

"Royal Charlie's now awa'
Safely owre the friendly main;
Mony a heart will break in twa
Should he ne'er come back again.

"Will ye no come back again?
Will ye no come back again?
Better lo'ed ye canna be;
Will ye no come back again?"

SUMMARY.

George II. and Queen Caroline—Walpole retained in power; his long ministry—Britain keeps out of European troubles—Frederick Prince of Wales—Growing war spirit in Britain against Spain and France; first signs of the coming struggle for oversea empire—Britain and France in America and India—Jenkins' ear; Walpole forced into war with Spain—Vernon's success and failures; Anson's voyage round the world.

War of the Austrian Succession; Frederick of Prussia's unprovoked attack on Maria Theresa—Fall of Walpole—Britain joins in the war—Battles of Dettingen and Fontenoy—Jacobite rising, the "Forty-five"; "Prince Charlie"—Battle of Prestonpans; the invasion of England and retreat—Battle of Culloden; cruel suppression of the rebels; wanderings and flight of the Prince—War in America; capture of Louisburg—Dupleix, the great French governor in India; fall of Madras; unsuccessful siege of Pondicherry—Victories of Marshal Saxe—Peace and restoration of conquests—Suppression of the Highland clans; ruin of the Stuart cause and later days of "Prince Charlie."

DATES.

1743. Battle of Dettingen.
1745. Battle of Fontenoy.
1745. Jacobite Rebellion (the "Forty-five"). } **War of Austrian Succession.**
1746. Battle of Culloden.

CHAPTER L

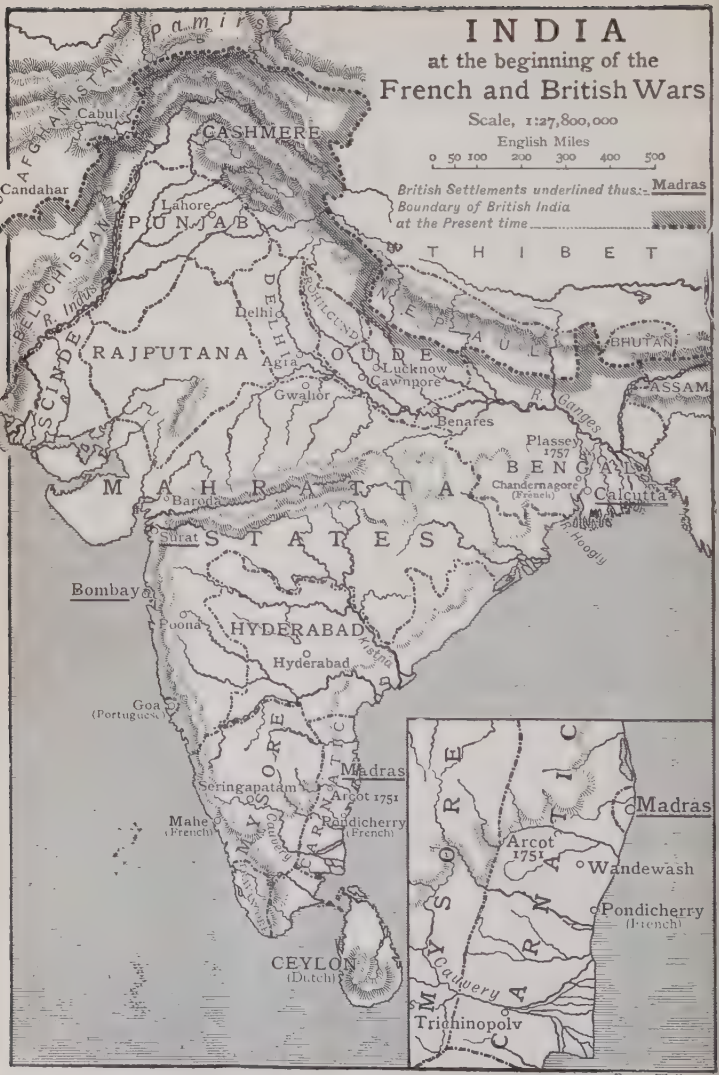
George II., 1727-1760

(II)

Britain triumphs Oversea over France

Dupleix's Schemes in India. His success.—The peace was only a truce; in India and America the rivalry between France and Britain went on, and in Europe Maria Theresa was planning her vengeance against Frederick. Fighting began almost at once in India. Dupleix found an opportunity of increasing French power. Struggles had broken out between native rivals for the thrones of Hyderabad, the greatest state in southern India, and of the Carnatic, the state in which Pondicherry and Madras are. Dupleix took sides in the struggles; so the British took sides against him. As there was peace between France and Britain the two Companies could not attack one another, but they could both help their champions in the struggle. At first Dupleix was successful in both states; he became the greatest man in southern India, and the power of France was respected, while the British were despised.

Robert Clive. His success at Arcot, 1751.—At this point a deliverer appeared for the British. Eight years before a lad of nineteen, called Robert Clive, had arrived at Madras as a junior clerk. He was the son of a poor Shropshire country gentleman; as a boy he was so wild and unmanageable that his family were glad to get rid of him. He had no friends in India, and found the life so wretched that once he tried to shoot himself, but the pistol did not go off. The capture of Madras by the French


INDIA
at the beginning of the
French and British Wars
Scale, 1:27,800,000
English Miles
0 50 100 200 300 400 500
British Settlements underlined thus: Madras
Boundary of British India at the Present time
Pamir
AFGHANISTAN
Cabul
KASHMERE
Candahar
Lahore
PUNJAB
BELUCHISTAN
R. Indus
SCINDE
THIBET
NEPAUL
BHUTAN
ASSAM
Delhi
ROHILCUND
RAJPUTANA
Agra
OUDE
Lucknow
Cawnpore
Gwalior
R. Ganges
Benares
Plassey 1757
BENGAL
Chandernagore (French)
Calcutta
Hoogly
MAHRATTA
Baroda
STATES
Surat
Bombay
Poona
HYDERABAD
Nizam
Hyderabad
Goa (Portuguese)
MYSORE
CARNATIC
Madras
Seringapatam
Arcot 1751
Pondicherry (French)
Mahe (French)
Cauvery
CEYLON (Dutch)
Trichinopoly
Wandewash
Emery Walker sc.

entirely changed his life. He escaped in disguise to a fort south of Pondicherry; as there was now no clerk's work for him he joined the Company's army, and distinguished himself so much that he was made an officer.

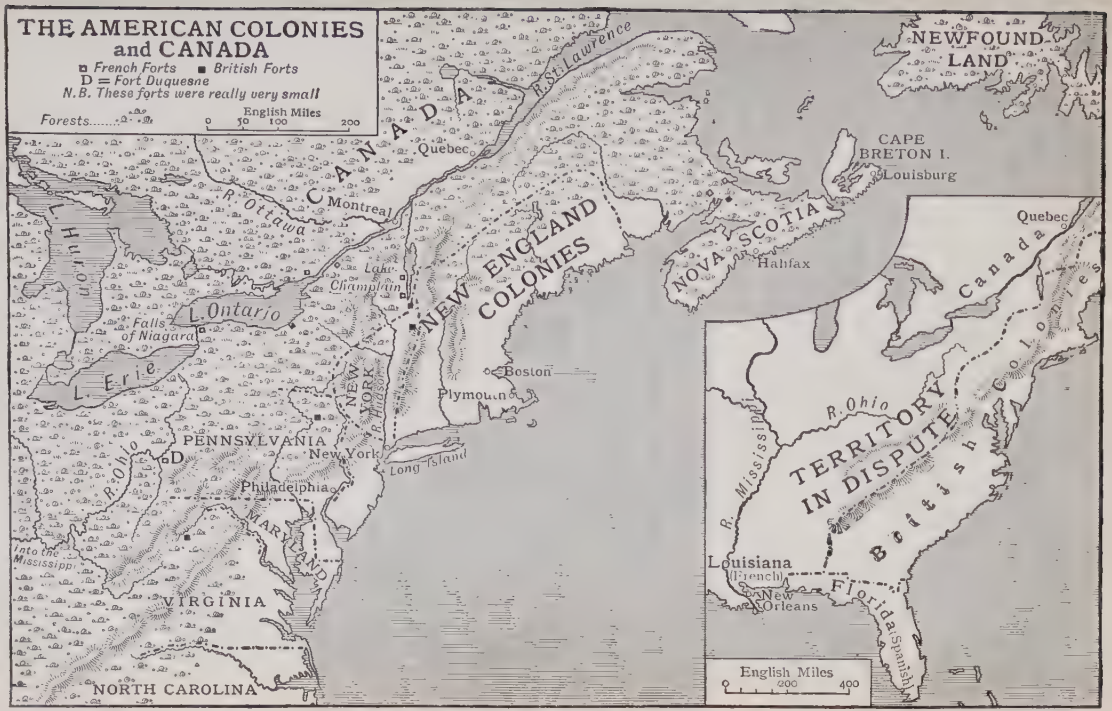
In 1751 the British ally in the Carnatic held only one town, called Trichinopoly, in which he was being besieged with the main British force by the French and their ally. Clive saw that unless some blow was quickly struck elsewhere all would be lost. Now Arcot, the capital of the Carnatic, was only sixty miles from Madras, much nearer than the besieged town. Clive left Trichinopoly, and asked the governor at Madras to let him attack Arcot. He managed to scrape together two hundred white soldiers and three hundred Sepoys, marched through a storm of thunder and rain, and surprised and took Arcot. A large force from before Trichinopoly came and besieged Clive in Arcot for five weeks. At last, when the little garrison was suffering terribly from famine, the besiegers, hearing that a force from another native state was coming to Clive's help, tried to storm Arcot. They had elephants with iron plates on their foreheads to batter the walls, but the elephants, maddened by the bullets, trampled their own side. The garrison beat off the attack, and then followed up and defeated the retreating force.

Final failure and recall of Dupleix, 1754.—This great victory turned the tide. The reputation of the British was restored. The commander of the Company's forces, Major Stringer Lawrence, who had been away ill, also returned; and more troops came from Calcutta. Lawrence was an able general, though now somewhat forgotten owing to Clive's fame. With Clive as his second in command he attacked the French at Trichinopoly, and after much fighting forced them to surrender. Dupleix himself was not a soldier, and did not command in the field, and his generals lacked ability. But he struggled on, never losing heart, even when his ablest officer, coming out again with reinforcements, perished with all his men, owing to

the ship catching fire at sea. At last in 1754 the French Company grew tired of the expense of the war, made peace with the British Company, and recalled Dupleix. Thus the British triumphed in southern India, and laid the foundation of our Empire there. Clive had returned home the year before in ill-health. He was rewarded with the rank of colonel. Dupleix died nine years later in poverty; he had spent his own money in the struggle, and the ungrateful French Company refused to repay him.

Fresh trouble between the American Colonies and Canada. Fort Duquesne.—While the British were triumphing over the French in India a storm was brewing in America about the ownership of the inland country. Virginian traders were crossing the Alleghanies, and settling on the Ohio, which rises near Lake Erie and flows into the Mississippi. The French, regarding this as Canadian territory, sent a force to occupy it. The governor of Virginia sent a young Virginian militia officer, Major Washington, of whom you will hear later, first to warn them off British territory, and next with a force of militia to drive them off. But the French were in superior numbers, and Washington was beaten in a fight, and compelled to retire. The French had now built a fort on the Ohio, which they called Fort Duquesne after the governor of Canada. The other colonies were slow to help Virginia; the Pennsylvanians, according to the creed of the Quakers, considered all war wicked. So Virginia appealed to Britain, as Canada did to France. Britain sent two regiments and a general called Braddock; France sent a general with three thousand men. A British squadron was sent to stop the French, but they got safely into the St. Lawrence, with the loss of one man-of-war.

Defeat of General Braddock near Fort Duquesne, 1755.—The two British regiments and the Virginian militia were to take Fort Duquesne. Unfortunately General Braddock, though a brave man, thought the only way to fight was the method employed by European armies in their wars.


THE AMERICAN COLONIES and CANADA
French Forts
British Forts
D = Fort Duquesne
N.B. These forts were really very small
Forests
English Miles
0 50 100 200
NEWFOUND-LAND
CAPE BRETON I.
Louisburg
Quebec
R. St. Lawrence
CANADA
Montreal
R. Ottawa
Lake Champlain
NEW ENGLAND COLONIES
NOVA SCOTIA
Halifax
Quebec
Canada
Colonies
L. Ontario
Falls of Niagara
L. Erie
Boston
Plymouth
NEW YORK
PENNSYLVANIA
New York
Long Island
Philadelphia
R. Ohio
D
MARYLAND
into the Mississippi
VIRGINIA
NORTH CAROLINA
R. Mississippi
R. Ohio
TERRITORY IN DISPUTE
British Colonies
Louisiana (French)
New Orleans
Florida (Spanish)
English Miles
0 200 400
Emery Walker sc.

He despised Washington and the colonial officers, and would not take their advice, and disgusted the friendly Indians so much by his contempt of them that they went off altogether. Very slowly the force made its way across the Alleghanies and through the hundred miles of wild forest beyond. Fort Duquesne was nearly reached, the long column was threading its way along a forest track, when it was suddenly fired at from behind some trees. The enemy were a company of regulars, a hundred and fifty militia, and six hundred Indians. The British regiments formed line and advanced firing. Most of the Canadians fled; but the Indians spread themselves on the flanks of the British, firing on them from behind trees and bushes and in ravines, screeching their war-whoops all the time. Instead of letting the soldiers scatter behind trees, as the Virginians did, Braddock forced them to keep close order as if they were fighting on the plains of Flanders. The result was that, after numbers had been shot down, they had to retreat, and soon fled in utter rout, abandoning all their cannons and baggage. Braddock was wounded, and died a day or two afterwards. His last words were, "We shall do better next time." Washington escaped unhurt; he had two horses shot under him, and did what he could to rally the men.

The French expelled from Nova Scotia. Montcalm sent to Canada.—Elsewhere the colonists fought unaided by regulars. One force made its way to Lake Ontario, but was too weak to attack the French forts. Another, composed of New York and New England militia with Indians, beat the French near Lake Champlain, and captured their new general who, but for the precautions of the British commander, would have been treacherously killed by our Indian allies. A third force captured a French fort on the frontier of Nova Scotia, and the French in Nova Scotia were compelled to leave their homes, a harsh but necessary proceeding. But these two successes did not make up for Braddock's defeat. The next year a fresh

French general arrived, the gallant and able Marquis Montcalm. Britain also sent out a new general and more troops, but he was not strong enough to do anything. Montcalm, on the other hand, captured two British forts in two years, one on Lake Ontario and one on Lake Champlain. Altogether things seemed going from bad to worse in America.

The Duke of Newcastle and William Pitt.—What Britain wanted at this time was an energetic and capable statesman at the head of affairs; and the chief minister, the Duke of Newcastle, an old colleague of Walpole, was the feeblest statesman that ever ruled the country. He was clever only in keeping together a majority in Parliament by influence and bribery. Luckily there was another statesman of a very different stamp, William Pitt, and the country was already looking to him to come to its rescue.

Pitt's grandfather had been an Indian merchant, and governor of Madras, and had amassed a great fortune. On his return home in the reign of Queen Anne he had used his wealth to obtain a seat in Parliament. Pitt was educated at Eton and Oxford, and entered the army as an officer in the Horse Guards. At the age of twenty-seven he obtained a seat in the House of Commons by the influence of his family, at the time when Walpole's peace policy was growing unpopular. He joined what he considered the patriotic party, and fiercely attacked Walpole, who meanly revenged himself by dismissing Pitt from the army. However, the Prince of Wales gave him a post in his household, and he continued his attacks as fiercely as ever. In the War of the Austrian Succession he assailed the Hanoverian policy of the ministry and the subsidies to German princes. This made George II. very angry, especially as he spoke with contempt of the Hanoverian soldiers and ridiculed the King's conduct at Dettingen. His ability and fierce eloquence made him so powerful in the Commons that he was given a small post in the ministry, which was all George would allow.

Pitt held this office for many years, up to the time of Braddock's defeat. War with France in Europe seemed now certain, and George II. was nervous about Hanover; for, as usual, the army had been greatly reduced in numbers after the last war. Newcastle could think of nothing better than to hire soldiers from some German princes, who were always ready to make money in this way. Pitt had great contempt for Newcastle, and felt that he himself ought to have a higher office. So he attacked his policy in the Commons, and Newcastle dismissed him.

Maria Theresa's Alliance against Prussia. The "Seven Years' War," 1756.—We soon, however, found a new ally on the Continent. Maria Theresa had completed her scheme for crushing Frederick of Prussia by making an alliance against him with her old enemy France and Russia. Britain therefore changed sides and joined Frederick. Thus began in 1756 the war known from the time it lasted as the "Seven Years' War."

Byng fails to save Minorca. Newcastle resigns. Pitt's Ministry.—The war began as badly in Europe as in America. The French immediately sent a squadron from Toulon with an army to take Minorca. Though the British navy was much stronger than the French, it had so much to do in guarding our commerce and distant possessions that only a squadron of equal size could be sent to relieve Minorca, important though it was. The admiral, Byng, was incompetent; he mismanaged the fight with the French squadron, and, some of his ships being badly damaged, returned to Gibraltar to refit. The result was that the French took Minorca. France seemed everywhere triumphant, and people began to say that Britain's day was over. The country was furious, and Newcastle had to resign, for Pitt, the "Great Commoner," as people now called him, would not help him. George had now to accept Pitt, with another Whig duke as nominal head of the ministry. Byng was court-martialled, and condemned to be shot for not doing

his best against the enemy; for by a recent law death was the only penalty for this offence. Pitt tried to beg him off, but the old King was firm. Byng was shot on the deck of his ship at Portsmouth. He met his death calmly. He was no coward, but from want of moral courage he had lost the country an important possession. A French writer said, "The English shoot an admiral to encourage the others." It was rather to point out their duty to them.

Pitt and Newcastle Ministry, 1757.—Pitt had, after all, to come to terms with Newcastle, for he could not stand against his influence. So Newcastle became Prime Minister again. He was to do all the managing of Parliament and bribery; Pitt was to manage the war. Pitt had already passed a Bill improving the militia, and had raised more troops; it was now that the Highland regiments were enlisted.

On the Continent throughout the war Frederick with marvellous skill kept his numerous enemies at bay, winning wonderful victories against great odds, and sometimes suffering bad defeats. Britain's and Hanover's share in the war was to fight the French.

But, just after Pitt joined Newcastle, the Duke of Cumberland, who was put in command of the Hanoverian army, lost a battle by bad generalship, and was forced to abandon Hanover; Frederick had just sustained one of his defeats; and things looked black indeed with Montcalm's successes in America. But Frederick recovered in his usual wonderful manner, and came and beat the French; and Pitt asked him to lend us a good general. Frederick sent Prince Ferdinand, brother of the Duke of Brunswick, and a distant relation of George II. and himself; and Ferdinand for the rest of the war kept the French out of Hanover.

Pitt made an agreement with Frederick that neither Britain nor Prussia should make peace separately; and he promised him a yearly subsidy. This was contrary to his former speeches; but he told the House of Commons that he was going to conquer America in Germany, and

all parties, even Tories, voted him as much money as he wanted.

As to America, Pitt sent over twenty thousand troops there. And he made a proper use of our superior navy

William Pitt, the Great Commoner.

to watch the French ports and prevent any squadrons getting out, which none did successfully after 1758.

Capture of Louisburg. Fort Duquesne abandoned. Battle of Ticonderoga, 1758.—By 1758 Pitt's measures began to produce their effect in America. Montcalm had only five thousand regulars to oppose our large army, and a

few ships at Louisburg; and from this time no further help reached him from France. The fleet took one force, which after a long siege captured Louisburg a second time. A force of militia made its way to Lake Ontario, and captured the chief French fort there. Fort Duquesne was thus cut off from Canada, and when a force of Virginian militia reached it in November they found it abandoned. In honour of the great minister it was renamed Fort Pitt; it is now Pittsburg, the great iron town of the United States.

Only on Lake Champlain, where Montcalm himself was in command, did the British come to grief. He took post at a place called Ticonderoga, where he had built a new fort. The British general could easily have driven the French out of it with his cannons; instead he tried to storm it. Though he had twelve thousand men against three thousand he was repulsed with terrible loss, and nothing more could be done this year.

The Campaign of 1759. General Wolfe attacks Quebec.—The capture of Louisburg more than made up for the defeat of Ticonderoga. Pitt was now able to strike at the heart of Canada by a naval expedition against Quebec up the St. Lawrence. For the command of the troops he selected a young colonel of thirty-two, named James Wolfe, who had greatly distinguished himself at the siege of Louisburg. He had returned to England, and Pitt was able to discuss plans with him. Wolfe was very unlike the ordinary officers; he was unmilitary in appearance, of delicate health, and devoted most of his time to studying the science of war. The foolish Newcastle did not like this appointment; he told George that Pitt's new general was mad. "Is he?" said the old King; "I hope he will bite some others of my generals."

While Wolfe, now a general, was attacking Quebec, the rest of the forces were to advance on Montreal by Lake Champlain again, and down the St. Lawrence from Lake Ontario. This was where Montcalm expected to be

attacked. To his surprise he heard of Wolfe's intended expedition, and took post with his main army at Quebec.

Quebec was indeed very hard to attack. It stands on a peninsula on the north bank of the St. Lawrence, which is there about a mile wide, and the high cliffs make a landing very difficult. Montcalm entrenched his army for six miles along the river bank below Quebec, where the landing was easier.

Wolfe's difficulties. His night-landing, victory, and death, September 1759.—The British campaign was very nearly a failure. The two land columns never got far, though the French abandoned and blew up Ticonderoga. Wolfe arrived before Quebec near the end of June. He had nine thousand men, mostly regulars, against Montcalm's fifteen thousand, of whom, however, only three thousand were regulars. He twice attacked Montcalm's position below Quebec without success; he bombarded Quebec from the warships and the opposite shore, but only caused the inhabitants to flee. September was near; Quebec was still unconquered; the admiral said the fleet could not stay much longer. Wolfe himself was suffering from illness, and he wrote a despairing letter to Pitt. The only chance left was to land above the city; he put half his army on shipboard, and sailed up past the guns of Quebec. But a landing-place six miles above Quebec was defended, and the cliffs were watched.

On the night of September 12th Montcalm was alarmed by the British ships left below Quebec bombarding his camp and apparently preparing a landing. He himself was in the trenches all night. At six in the morning he heard the sound of cannon above the town; he rode towards Quebec, and soon saw red coats on the high ground two miles off. "This is serious," he exclaimed; and, sending orders for the troops to follow, galloped to the point of danger. He hoped at first it was only a small body; he soon found it was Wolfe with four thousand men.

Wolfe had espied a narrow path up the cliff a mile and

a half from Quebec. He had landed his men at night undiscovered. Twenty-four volunteers had climbed the path and surprised the small guard at the top. The army had followed, and were now drawn up across the level ground at the top, called the Plains of Abraham, from a former settler called Abraham Martin. At ten o'clock Montcalm ordered the attack. He had about the same number of men as the British, for all his troops were not yet up. When the French were forty yards off the British

Death of Wolfe.

gave them a murderous volley, and then charging with the bayonet drove them off in utter rout. Wolfe fell shot in the moment of victory. "They run," exclaimed an officer. "Who runs?" asked the dying general. "The French." "Then I die happy." Montcalm was mortally wounded in the flight, and died next day. Thus perished the two heroes of the war. Panic-stricken at their defeat, and deprived of their great general, the French retreated thirty miles up the St. Lawrence, and Quebec after all was ours.

The Conquest of Canada, 1760.—Next year the end

came. In the spring, indeed, the French attacked Quebec, and won a victory over the British, half of whom were in hospital; but British ships came to their relief, and the French retreated. In the summer the three armies, from Quebec, down the St. Lawrence, and from Lake Champlain, closed round Montreal. The Canadian militia went off to their homes, and the French army, under three thousand strong, had to surrender to over twenty thousand foes. The British triumph in America was complete.

1759, the year of Pitt's triumph. Quebec, Minden, and Quiberon Bay.—The year of the battle of Quebec, 1759, was the year of Pitt's triumph, and perhaps the most glorious year in our history. It was known as the "Year of Victories." In distant seas we captured a West Indian island and a West African settlement. On August 1st Ferdinand of Brunswick routed a stronger French army outside the fortress of Minden in Hanover. The honours of the battle rested with six British infantry regiments, still known as the "Minden Regiments," whose steady advance broke the French centre. But the commander of the British cavalry disobeyed or misunderstood Ferdinand's orders to charge, otherwise the victory would have been still more complete.

The French were also planning an invasion of England, a hopeless idea owing to the strength of our navy, and Toulon and Brest were watched by superior British squadrons under Admirals Boscawen and Hawke. In August the Toulon squadron got out; but Boscawen chased and caught it off Cape Lagos in Portugal, and took or destroyed most of the ships. In October came the news of Quebec. At the end of the month the French squadron in Brest got out, when a westerly gale had forced Hawke to run into Torbay. When he returned the French admiral ran for refuge into the rocky and dangerous bay of Quiberon in the Bay of Biscay. He thought Hawke would not dare to follow, for it was late in the day, and a westerly gale was again blowing. Hawke's pilot warned him of the dangers

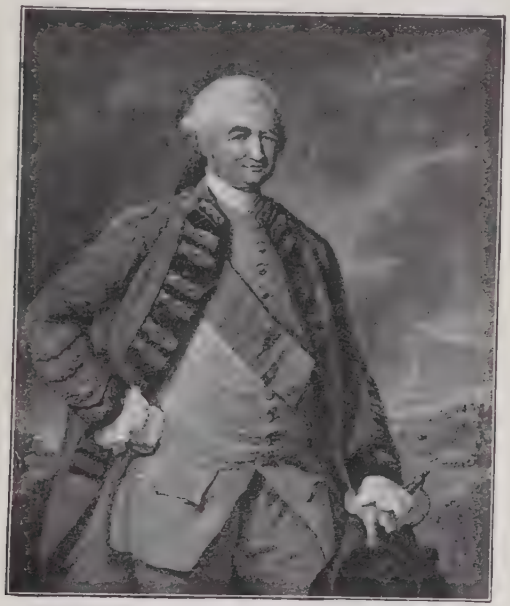
Battle of Quiberon Bay.

of the bay. He replied, "You have done your duty in speaking, now lay me alongside the French admiral"; and after the French the British fleet went. The fighting went on into the night. Two French ships went down with all hands owing to the sea coming through the lower port-holes; two struck their flags; seven ran up a little river, and remained there for two years; some, including the admiral's, ran ashore to avoid capture; a few others escaped. Two British ships were lost on the rocks, but the crews were saved. The battle of Quiberon Bay is one of the finest exploits of our navy. Compared with Byng's action, it showed that the British navy only wanted leaders. The French had been crushed at sea and crushed in America; such was the result of two years of Pitt's ministry.

India. "Black Hole of Calcutta," 1756. Clive's victory of Plassey, 1757.—In India they were not yet crushed. But other important events had happened, not down in the south-east, but in the north in Bengal. There, when the war broke out, the governor of Calcutta began to repair the fortifications of Fort William. The Nabob of Bengal, a bad, cruel young man named Surajah Dowlah, who hated the British, said they had no right to do so without his leave, and marched against Calcutta. Most of the British merchants fled in a panic to the ships, but a hundred and forty-six were caught. They were brought before the Nabob, who abused them, but promised to ransom them. To secure them for the night the guards put them into a small room less than twenty feet square. It was the hottest season in India, when, with every sort of contrivance, it is difficult to keep cool. The wretched captives offered the guards bribes to let them out. They were told it could only be done by order of the Nabob, who was asleep and could not be disturbed. As the night went on many fainted and sank to the ground; others, maddened by the heat, fought to get to the two small windows, trampling one another down. In the morning, when the Nabob

allowed the door to be opened, only twenty-three survivors staggered out.

When the awful news of the "Black Hole of Calcutta," as it was called, reached Madras, Clive, who had come out again, went up with a large force on the squadron stationed there. Clive at once retook Calcutta and Fort William,



Robert Clive.

and the Nabob began to treat with him. But the Nabob was hated by his subjects, and his chief general, called Meer Jaffier, conspired secretly with Clive to gain the throne himself. So Clive would not make peace, and the Nabob marched against him with fifty thousand men, including some French artillerymen. Clive with twelve hundred British and three thousand Sepoys met him near the

village of Plassey. He was in great doubt about fighting, for he was not sure of Meer Jaffier, and the majority of his council of war were against it. But Clive went apart under some trees, and after an hour's anxious thought decided to take the risk. Soon after the battle began next day Surajah Dowlah rode away, no doubt by the suggestion of the conspirators; thereupon his army took to flight, and Meer Jaffier with his division came over to Clive. A few days afterwards Surajah Dowlah was taken and killed by Meer Jaffier's son. Meer Jaffier became Nabob of Bengal, but he was wholly in the power of the British. So our rule in India began in Bengal with the battle of Plassey; and Calcutta took the place of Bombay as the Company's capital.

Clive, it is sad to say, was guilty of an act of un-English trickery in this business. He also was rewarded by Meer Jaffier from the late Nabob's treasury. He took over £100,000 for himself, and still more for the soldiers and servants of the Company. This is a thing which no British general or statesman should do, or would do nowadays.

The final struggle with the French in India. Eyre Coote and Lally Tollendal. Capture of Pondicherry, 1761.—The year after Plassey a French squadron arrived at Pondicherry with troops to renew the struggle with Madras. The general was an Irishman, Count Lally Tollendal, a fine soldier who had distinguished himself in the Irish Brigade at Fontenoy, but a proud and hot-tempered man. The British could not prevent his landing, but the next year they drove the French squadron right away.

This ruined Lally's chances. At first he was successful, as most of the British troops were away in Bengal. He captured several places, and even besieged Madras, till the British squadron drove him off. More troops came out under Colonel Coote, a hero of Plassey. In January 1760 the two generals met at Wandewash, a fort between Madras and Pondicherry. The white troops on the two

sides did most of the fighting, and the French were utterly beaten. Coote captured town after town, and at last besieged Lally in Pondicherry itself. Day after day on the ramparts of Pondicherry, Lally scanned the horizon for the sight of French sails bringing help. None could come, for the British fleets now held the sea. Just a year after Wandewash, Pondicherry surrendered; and India as well as America was lost to France. On his return home the unhappy Lally was imprisoned, and after a few years beheaded without trial, on charges brought against him by the French in India.

Death of George II. End of the Oversea Duel.—George II. died suddenly in October 1760, before the siege of Pondicherry, at the age of seventy-seven. Frederick Prince of Wales had died nine years before, leaving two daughters and four sons, the eldest of whom became King as George III. Besides the Prince of Wales and the Duke of Cumberland, George II. had three daughters, married to the King of Denmark, the Prince of Orange, and a German prince.

Though George II. died before the siege of Pondicherry, and the Seven Years' War did not end for another three years, at the time of his death Britain had really won the great duel with France for oversea dominion. The three great names in our triumph are Pitt, who directed the war; Clive, the victor at Arcot and Plassey; and Wolfe, the conqueror of Quebec. But Lawrence; Coote, who had more fighting to do in another war; and Hawke, the victor at Quiberon Bay, are also not to be forgotten in the roll of fame.

SUMMARY.

Fighting in India; Dupleix's successful schemes—Clive turns the tide at Arcot—Failure and recall of Dupleix—Fighting in America; the dispute about the Ohio; Fort Duquesne—Defeat of Braddock—Montcalm's successes—William Pitt and the feeble Newcastle—The Seven Years' War; Britain and Prussia

against France, Austria, and Russia—Byng's repulse at Minorca; loss of the island; his execution—Pitt's great ministry (with Newcastle)—Defeat of the Duke of Cumberland; Pitt's agreement with Frederick—The war in America; capture of Louisburg; abandonment of Fort Duquesne; defeat of Ticonderoga—The "Year of Victories," 1759; victories of Minden, Lagos, Quiberon Bay, and Quebec—Conquest of Canada—India; the "Black Hole of Calcutta"—Clive's victory at Plassey; foundation of our Indian Empire—Battle of Wandewash and fall of Pondicherry.

DATES.

1755. Braddock's defeat.
1756. Loss of Minorca.
1756. Black Hole of Calcutta.
1757. Battle of Plassey.
1759. The Year of Victories; Quebec taken.
} **Seven Years' War.**

CHAPTER LI

The Days of Empire-Founding

Contemporary Views of the Time.—The seventy years after the Revolution were a time of great achievements for England. You have read how France, so powerful in the great days of Louis XIV., was first checked, then humbled, and finally decisively beaten in the recent struggle for oversea empire. At home the struggle against the Crown had been settled, and under its Parliamentary government Britain was looked on by the other nations with envy as the one country that was both powerful and free.

Before the Great War it was the fashion to contrast the "present unmanly, luxurious age" with the great days of "Empire-founding." It is curious to find writers of those days making the same complaint. A great bishop, writing in the reign of George I., looked back to the days of the rise and greatness of England (by which he probably meant the reign of Elizabeth), when Englishmen were religious, simple, brave, and patriotic; but now they had grown wealthy and luxurious, without any belief in religion or any public spirit; in fact, they were in danger of utter ruin by bringing on themselves the hatred of God and man.

Another writer, at the beginning of the Seven Years' War, puts our disasters in the first years down to the "luxurious and selfish effeminacy" of the nation, caused by the growth of wealth and commerce. And we shall find other writers, too, abusing the age.

The Faults of the Age.—The evils attacked certainly existed, but chiefly in the upper classes, who had improved little since the Restoration; and they existed in the other

nations as well. The fact is, that the great religious struggle which had gone on since the Reformation, and in Britain had been mixed up with the political struggle, was over. Religion had become little more than a party badge. There was now no great cause to stir men's minds, no great improvement in the world to look forward to. Meantime wealth was increasing, and with it the comforts of civilisation. The upper classes, with no high aims and no real religious feelings, lived a life of elegant ease and frivolous enjoyment. Exquisite manners, artistic taste, clever and witty talk, were the qualities mostly admired. Everywhere the lower classes were looked down on as beings of an inferior kind. But it was a time of much thought and free discussion, especially in France, which before the end of the century produced a fresh awakening, and a very terrible one there, for the frivolous upper classes, as you will read.

How then, you may ask, was the Empire founded in such days? The truth is, that "Society" was not England. The heart of the nation was sound; and there was a good fighting stock for our army and navy. Our wars were forced on us by France: the first in defence of our freedom won by the Revolution, the second owing to the rivalry of the settlers in America and the Companies in India. The first was won by the military genius of one man, the Duke of Marlborough; the second mainly by Pitt—the champion of the nation.

Life in London. Health Resorts; Bath.—The fine ladies and gentlemen of London society began the day with chocolate in bed. They got up for a late breakfast of tea and light food, and spent the morning in undress, the gentlemen in night-caps and dressing-gowns, in which garb they would visit each other, or even go to the coffee-house. About noon they dressed, the ladies admitting gentlemen friends to their toilets. Till dinner-time, which was now at three, there were shopping, the Mall, and the

The Mall, St. James's Park, about 1750.

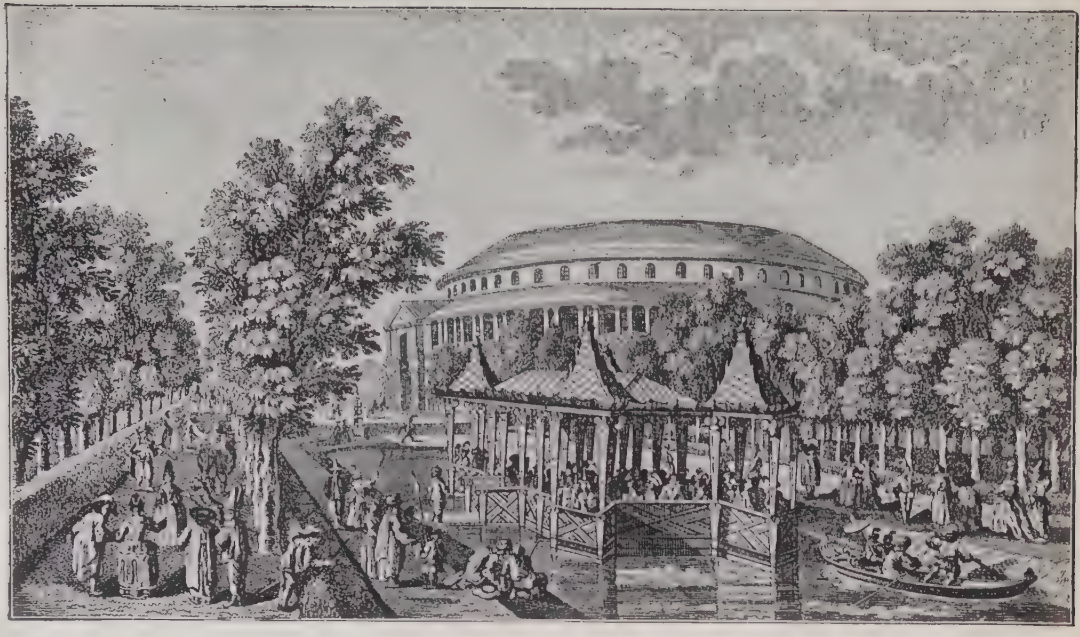
Park. After dinner came tea and visiting. In the evening parties for music, dancing, and cards, the theatre and other amusements. For gentlemen there were the coffee-houses and taverns all day and night.

Of theatres there were now three: Covent Garden and the Haymarket had been added to Drury Lane. At the Haymarket Italian opera was played. Then there were the open-air gardens in summer. Of these the fashionable ones were Vauxhall on the river bank, started in Charles II.'s reign, and Ranelagh at Chelsea, which sprang up later as a rival. They were beautifully laid out with walks among the trees, and a building for music, dancing, and entertainments.

When tired of London people went off to health resorts—Bath and Tunbridge Wells and others—where they drank the waters, bathed, and continued the same round of pleasures. A visit from Queen Anne at the beginning of her reign brought the rank and fashion to Bath; and its prosperity was assured by its master of ceremonies, a gambler called "Beau" Nash, who ruled there for twenty years. The great days of Bath lasted till early in the nineteenth century.

Clubs at Coffee-houses and Taverns.—From the coffee-houses started in the last period arose "clubs." Friends were in the habit of meeting at particular coffee-houses; so little societies were formed, and as the members clubbed together to pay the expenses, they were known as clubs. It was, however, some time before the present system of clubs having their own houses arose. There were clubs of all sorts: literary or wits' clubs, where some great writer such as Dryden or Addison reigned supreme; political clubs, military clubs, church clubs, and legal clubs. Lloyd's, the present association for insuring ships, arose from a shippers' club that met in a coffee-house kept by a man called Lloyd.

Clubs also met at taverns, especially the two famous political clubs, the Tory "October Club," and the Whig



Ranelagh Gardens about 1750. A fancy-dress entertainment.

Kit-Cat Club. These names arose from the October ale which the Tory squires in Parliament drank, and from mutton pies, called Kit-Cats, sold in the tavern where the Whigs met.

Drunkenness. The Mohawks.—Besides frivolous amusement, the scoffing at religion and virtue, there were worse faults. Drunkenness had grown in the upper as well as the lower classes, and it was thought no disgrace for a gentleman to be seen drunk; a man who refused to drink was considered a milksop. Young men in London, too, having no games to expend their energy on, used to amuse themselves by roaming the streets at night, attacking the watchmen, breaking windows, tearing off door-knockers, and otherwise amusing themselves. In Queen Anne's reign there were two specially bad outbreaks; the perpetrators, who were called "Mohawks" (a tribe of Red Indians), created quite a terror by their savage attacks on men, and even women, who were unlucky enough to be out after dark. In 1712 a Royal Proclamation was issued offering £100 for any information against them, but it does not appear that they were often caught. It is strange that no proper police force was established; the watchmen were feeble old men nicknamed "Charlies," and not particularly honest.

Duelling.—Duelling, too, was now a recognised institution of society. Every gentleman had to be ready to defend his "honour" with his sword. A man who killed his opponent in a duel was tried for manslaughter only, and the penalty was very slight. Noted swordsmen gave themselves great airs, and these "bullies" were a great pest. Duels often took place on trifling causes. A famous and fatal duel in Queen Anne's reign came about as follows:—The Duke of Hamilton, the leading Scottish Jacobite, had a law-suit with Lord Mohun, and remarked to him that one of the witnesses was untruthful. Lord Mohun retorted that the man was as honest as the Duke. Three days later they fought in Hyde Park. Lord Mohun was killed

outright, and the Duke fell over him dangerously wounded. The two seconds, who had been "joining in the dance," as they called it, went to their aid, and, according to the Duke's second, the other, a general who had distinguished himself in the war, treacherously stabbed the Duke, who died in his coach as he was being driven away. But, as Lord Mohun was a Whig, perhaps the charge was only party spite. However, the general fled the country, but when the Whigs were in power in George I.'s reign he returned and stood his trial. He was, as usual, convicted of manslaughter, and soon after was given a high command in the army.

Country Life.—London society, as you were told, was not England, any more then than now. And in those days it was still more cut off from the country, because travel was more difficult and expensive, and only the very rich could afford both a town and country house. The stay-at-home country squire was the reverse of the artificial society beau, who looked on him with contempt; in fact, in books of the day, he is often represented as a coarse, ill-educated boor who talked like a rustic. He had his duties as a magistrate; the rest of his time was spent in hunting, shooting, and perhaps drinking in the village ale-house. The wives and daughters, too, of the squires, with little to do except look after the household, had a very dull time compared with the London ladies. From this class came Clive, and many another who did good service in the founding of the Empire.

Dress.—There was little change in men's dress. The beaver hat became lower, then the brims were turned up, and it became the three-cornered hat. After Anne's reign the wigs became smaller, and were generally powdered. Ladies gave up the simple curls of the Stuart time for a more elaborate and often powdered head-dress, which became so high and complicated that when done it had to last for some days. They also took to the hoop, the old farthingale in more elegant form. Ladies and even

A picture called "Painting," showing ladies' and gentlemen's dress about 1750

gentlemen sometimes wore two or three black patches, like little bits of sticking-plaster, to show off their complexion. Wigs and powder and patches are signs of the artificial ways of society in those days.

The Church. Its efforts at improvement and its decline. The Wesleyan Revival.—It must not be imagined that the Church had been doing nothing all this time. In William III.'s and Anne's reigns it made an effort to check vice, aided by some earnest laymen. And it had attacked the low tone of the stage with considerable success. In Anne's reign the Societies for Promoting Christian Knowledge, and for the Propagation of the Gospel were founded. Parliament also under the Tory ministry had fifty new churches built in the growing suburbs of London. Unfortunately the Church was too Tory, and was not free from Jacobitism. So the accession of George I. was a bad thing for it. Only Whigs were now made bishops. They were mostly courtiers and politicians, who neglected their religious duties, and had little influence over the lower clergy. The Church sank into a state of deadness; the services were few and dull, and very scantily attended. Many of the country clergy lived the lives of sporting gentlemen, and those who were earnest could do little.

At the beginning of George II.'s reign there came a sort of Puritan revival by the "Methodists" or "Wesleyans." An Oxford undergraduate, Charles Wesley, and his elder brother John, already a clergyman, started a society for strict and methodical religious observance, and so were nicknamed Methodists. After a time they founded chapels in London and Bristol, and went about the country preaching, often in the open air, and crowds flocked to hear them. Though a few ladies of rank took up the cause, it was only among the lower orders that at first Methodism had any effect. John Wesley was the leader of the movement. As he received little encouragement from the clergy he founded a society of preachers called the W

leyan Society, but still working within the Church. Some of his followers, however, disagreeing with him, left the Church and became Dissenters, under the name of Methodists. It was not till after the death of Wesley, near the end of the century, that the Wesleyans themselves became Dissenters.

Growth of Wealth and Trade. The Bank. The "South Sea Bubble."—That the country was fast growing richer is shown by the enormous sums it could afford to spend on the wars. The War of the Spanish Succession had raised the National Debt to £50,000,000; by the death of George II. it was doubled. England was now the great trading nation of the world. The Bank of England had been founded in William III.'s reign, in imitation of the Dutch, who had started banks during their commercial greatness. In old days the only banks were in the great Italian cities. In London the goldsmiths had acted as bankers, but most people kept their money at home.

Then came joint-stock companies for trading. Before companies were associations of merchants, like the East India Company; each merchant shared the profits according to the amount he contributed to the stock of the company. Now companies were formed to which the public were invited to contribute by buying "shares," generally of £100, and so sharing the profits. This enabled people to use their money profitably instead of hoarding it, and at the same time promoted trade. People have to be careful when they "invest," or put their money into a company, to be sure that it is a good one, for if it comes to grief they may lose all the money they invested. Such companies are called "bubble companies," because they are like a bubble which looks substantial, but soon bursts.

There was one famous case in George I.'s reign, known as the "South Sea Bubble." There was a "South Sea Company" which traded with South America, and was supported by the ministry, because it made an arrange-

Part of Old London Bridge before the houses were pulled down.

Notice the difference between the timbered houses on the right, and the later houses in the middle.

ment, too complicated to explain, to take over part of the National Debt. So people thought it must be a very good company, and were very eager to buy shares in it. The price of the shares went up, and the excitement rose. The street where the business was done was crowded with people, including ladies of rank, clamouring for shares; and at last they were giving £1000 for £100 shares! As there was such a mania for share-buying, other companies were started, some of which were quite absurd.

Soon people began to think their shares were not worth the money they had given for them, and wanted to sell them. The idea spread; everybody was as anxious to sell as they had been to buy, and the price went right down again. Many people who had foolishly invested all their savings were ruined. There was great anger against the ministers, some of whom had used their position to make money unfairly. One committed suicide; another was expelled from the House of Commons. Walpole, who was skilled in money matters, came to the rescue, and arranged matters so that some relief could be given to the sufferers; this was the beginning of his long ministry. The South Sea Company was not really itself a "bubble" company; it was the people's foolishness that made the "bubble"; and when the "bubble" was over it went on with its trading as before. Just about the same time there was also a "bubble" in France over a company formed to work the new colony of Louisiana, called the Mississippi Company, and it ended in much the same way. People at that time did not understand about investing in companies, and thought they could make their fortunes easily. Some people think so nowadays, and suffer for it.

Growth of London.—The growth of London westwards is shown by the building of a second bridge, at Westminster; it took over ten years to build, and was opened in 1750. It was not the present bridge. A few years later the houses on the old London Bridge were pulled down to give more room to traffic. The district north of Westminster was

now the fashionable part. Queen Anne's Gate, south of St. James's Park, and Hanover Square, north of Piccadilly, show their date by their names. Bloomsbury, the district near the British Museum, was now beginning to be occupied. It had been Church land, and was granted to the first Earl of Bedford, head of the Russell family, by Henry VIII.; Russell Square still keeps up the family name. Kensington was still a suburban village; there were many noblemen's houses there, of which Holland House still survives. The Court being at Kensington made it fashion-

Blenheim Palace. Built in Queen Anne's reign; "Classical" style.

able. William III. began laying out Kensington Gardens, now practically part of Hyde Park, and Anne and Caroline continued the work. It was Caroline who had the Round Pond in Kensington Gardens made, and also the Serpentine out of the stream flowing through the Park.

Architecture.—For public buildings and churches the Classical style was still used. And one architect employed it for country mansions; one of these is Blenheim House. Of town mansions in the English style, Marlborough House, the Duke's town house, built by Wren, is a fine example. It was bought by the Crown a century later,

and was the residence of Edward VII. and George V. when each was Prince of Wales; at the present time (1911) it is the residence of Queen Alexandra. Ordinary town houses were of brown brick; in Queen Anne's reign they had some style. Those in Queen Anne's Gate have handsome carved porticoes; under the Georges they were plain and ugly. Nor were some noblemen's town houses much better, as a comparison of Devonshire House, the resi-

Marlborough House at the present day.
Built by Sir Christopher Wren.

dence of the Dukes of Devonshire in Piccadilly, with Marlborough House shows.

Highwaymen.—The roads were still insecure from the want of proper police. The mail coaches were frequently "held up," as they say in America, by highwaymen, especially on the lonely heaths and forests round London. The modern railway "guard" takes his name from the armed guard of these old coaches. And in the outlying parts of London

footpads prowled after belated wayfarers. All through the eighteenth century the road from Kensington was so dangerous that on Sunday evenings a bell was rung, so that people returning to town might assemble in sufficient numbers to ensure their safety. At Belsize Park, north of the present Regent's Park, there was a tea-garden in George I.'s reign which had this notice, "For the security of the guests there are twelve stout fellows, completely armed, to patrol between London and Belsize."

Parliament.—As Parliament ruled the country, Britain, as you have been told, was regarded by the other nations as a free country. But it was hardly what we should now call freedom. The lower classes, the labourers and artisans, had never voted for members of Parliament; for when the House of Commons began in the reign of Edward I. they were mostly villeins, not freemen, and no change had been made since then. By this time, therefore, the method of electing members had become quite out of date, and you will find the fact becoming very important as time goes on.

The House of Commons, as set up by Edward I., consisted of two members from each county and two from each town, without any regard to the number of the inhabitants. In the counties people who possessed a certain amount of land voted, that is, the gentry or large farmers. In the towns it was sometimes the town council, sometimes the freemen, sometimes the householders, sometimes people who paid certain taxes. But for a long time no change had been made in the list of towns which returned members; some had decayed and had very few inhabitants; others had remained small country towns; while places which had once been little villages had grown into important towns, and had no members at all. These were mainly in the North and Midlands; among them were Manchester, Leeds, Sheffield, and Birmingham. The small towns were generally in the power of the neighbouring peer or great land-owner, who could nominate any members

he liked ; and some would even sell the right of nomination. In the counties the great landed families had also strong influence, and when of opposite parties fought against one another. Only in the large towns had the middle-class voters—the merchants and traders—much voice in the elections. It was by their support that the great Whig families were able long to control the Commons.

The House of Lords was more equally divided ; but with Whig bishops the Whigs had a majority after the accession of George I., in spite of Anne's creation of Tory peers ; so there were no conflicts in those days between the two Houses.

The "New Style" of Calendar.—Towards the end of George II.'s reign the government decided to adopt the Gregorian Calendar, started, as you have read, by Pope Gregory XIII. in the sixteenth century. It seemed absurd that Britain should continue to lag behind the other countries out of mere hostility to the papacy. In 1700 we had fallen another day behind, so, to put things right, it was decreed that September 3rd should be the 14th. The ignorant working classes thought that they were losing their wages for the dropped days, and there was a great outcry, "Give us back our eleven days." Of course, as the wages were paid by the week, the change did not affect them.

The Greek Church, however, still refuses to accept the Pope's reform ; so Russia keeps the "Old Style," and has fallen two more days behind, in 1800 and 1900. A person going from England to Russia soon after December 25th can thus have two Christmas days in one year. Russians writing to people in other parts of Europe date their letters doubly, as June $\frac{4}{17}$; sometimes O.S. (Old Style) is put, as June 4 O.S.

The Army and Navy.—The British soldiers had established their reputation in the European wars as stubborn fighters under success or failure. Their worst failures had been against strange ways of fighting : against the Highlanders

and in the forest fighting of America. The country still insisted on keeping down the numbers of the army, and trusting to the navy, as at the present day. The men were drawn from the lowest class; "to go for a soldier" was thought a disgrace for a man. There was no training in peace time, except ordinary drill. The officers conse-

Infantry soldier, 1750.

quently had a very idle time, and so often fell into dissipated ways. They were considered abroad as fine fighters, but ignorant of their profession. The want of good generals in the Seven Years' War has been noticed; whether Wolfe and Clive and the other Indian generals could have fought European campaigns like the Duke of Marlborough's it is impossible to say.

As to the navy, for some time our ships were inferior in build to the French and Spanish. By the Seven Years' War they had improved, and were much the same as the ships of Trafalgar; the *Victory's* keel was laid only five years after the death of George II. There were still many officers of the old "tarpaulin" class; writers of the day

Infantry soldier, 1750.

generally depict naval officers as rough, coarse men; but they were the men who won the supremacy of the sea. It was not till the reign of George II. that a uniform, a blue coat, was given to the naval officers.

Literature. Freedom of the Press. Pope.—In William III.'s reign Parliament did a great service to literature by allowing the Licence Law to drop. Since

that time writers have been able to publish what they like, but they can be tried and punished if they publish anything harmful. The reigns of Anne and George I. were a great age in English literature—the age of Pope in poetry, Addison and Swift in prose. Before Anne's accession Dryden was still living and reigning supreme in poetry. His successor, Pope, was born in the year of the Revolution, and made his name in the middle of Anne's reign. Pope brought the style of Dryden to perfection. His verse is very clever, polished, and witty, but, like the life of those days, very artificial, and sometimes bitter. He set the fashion for nearly a century. His greatest poem is the *Essay on Man*; he also translated Homer, but much of the latter part was written for him by inferior colleagues. Pope was deformed in body and spiteful in temper, but he was a great power in his day, and held a little court at his villa at Twickenham.

Swift and "Gulliver's Travels."—Dean Swift, known to the young reader as the author of *Gulliver's Travels*, is one of the most remarkable names in English literature. Jonathan Swift was born in Dublin of English parentage in the early days of Charles II. His father having died, his mother was dependent on his uncle, who held a government post in Ireland. He was not well off, and so could not do very much for his brother's family. This made Swift think he was ill-treated; and he grew up sullen and discontented. After the local grammar school he went to Trinity College, Dublin; but he was idle and unruly, so his genius was not recognised. At the time of the Revolution, when he was twenty-one, he obtained the post of secretary to Sir William Temple, who had been a great statesman in Charles II.'s reign. He was well treated, but hated his dependent position. Once he left for an appointment in the Church in Ireland; but he returned, and remained with Sir William till his death in 1699. Swift now was given a small living in Ireland; but he had already begun to write on controversial subjects of the day, and the power and

wit of his writings soon made him famous. He was often in Dublin, and in London, where he made the acquaintance of Addison, and afterwards of Pope.

When the great struggle between the Whigs and Tories began, Swift, as has been mentioned, wrote for the Tories. When they came to power he was made Dean of St. Patrick's. He, however, thought he ought to have been a bishop. The triumph of the Whigs and the accession of George I. embittered him still more. He became a "misanthrope," that is, a person who hates the human race. His mind became more and more gloomy, and he died insane, at the age of nearly eighty, in the year of the "Forty-five."

Gulliver's Travels, published in George I.'s reign, was written as a satire on the England of the day and the human race, and a very savage satire it is. Lemuel Gulliver was a ship's doctor, and his narrative of his shipwrecks and adventures, that brought him to the four strange countries, is a skit on the books of voyages which were rather common in those days. As to the countries themselves, in Lilliput, where people are six inches high, we are shown the pettiness of our ambitions and struggles, as viewed by a superior being. In Brobdingnag, where people were as high as church steeples (about eighty feet apparently), we see all our faults exaggerated. In Laputa, an island floating in the air, he attacks what he thought the absurdities of the science of the day. So absorbed were the Laputans in their meditations that they had to have attendants to rouse them when addressed. This they did by gently touching them with "flappers," which were bladders fastened to a stick. However, their scientific knowledge enables them to keep their island in the air, raising it and lowering it as they will by a huge magnet. The last voyage to the land of horses, "Houyhnhnms"—their own unpronounceable name for themselves—contains the most savage satire of all. The horses are perfect in mind and body, knowing nothing of disease, war, or crime. They die peacefully of old age;

and they have no word in their language for a lie, which they can only call "Saying that which is not." Men there are the animals; they are called "Yahoos," and are so horrible that Gulliver is utterly ashamed of his kinship to them. In the description of the habits of the Yahoos, and in the account of England and Europe which Gulliver gives his horse-master, Swift pours out torrents of ferocious abuse on his fellow-countrymen, making them out to be far worse than the writers mentioned at the beginning of the chapter.

In inventiveness, wit, and savagery Swift has never been surpassed. Some of his other writings during his latter years were against the ill-treatment of Ireland by England, and won him great popularity among the Irish.

Addison and the "Spectator."—A very different writer was Addison, whose *Spectator* is one of the immortal works of our literature. A man of the highest character and kindly temper, he saw the good as well as the bad in human nature, and tried to raise the tone of the age by gentle satire, not by fierce abuse. Addison was a few years younger than Swift. The son of a country clergyman, he was intended for the Church, and sent to Oxford. There he made a great name as a scholar, and became a fellow of his college, and his first literary efforts attracted the notice of Dryden. The Whig leaders then took him up as a useful recruit. Addison's college, Magdalen, had suffered most from James II.'s tyranny, and this perhaps made him a Whig.

After travelling abroad for a few years Addison returned to London in the second year of Anne's reign, was welcomed in literary circles, and joined the Kit-Cat Club. As the ministry was mainly Tory he was at first left out in the cold; but when Marlborough turned to the Whigs he was given a post in the ministry, and a seat was found for him in the House of Commons. But he was too shy to shine in debate; it was with his pen that he helped his side. Addison was no bitter partisan, and was as much

respected by Tories as by Whigs. His great ally was his old college friend, Dick Steele, a lovable but rather wild Irishman, a Whig writer like himself. Steele started a Whig paper called the *Tatler*, and Addison wrote for it.

Then came the Whig downfall. Steele dropped his *Tatler*, and started a non-political paper, which he called

Joseph Addison.

the *Spectator*, because the writer was supposed to be a man who liked to look on and comment on the ways of the world around him. He belonged to a club, the chief member of which was a Tory country squire, Sir Roger de Coverley. Addison joined in the project, and made the *Spectator* what it is. Steele's papers are clever and witty, but without Addison it would have

been no better than other similar papers of the day, now forgotten. It came out every day, and consisted of a single article, written by Addison or Steele, or occasionally by some friend. The subjects were very various, generally with comments on the follies of the day, sometimes moral essays, or little stories of modern life, or old Eastern tales. At one time every Saturday Addison wrote on *Paradise Lost*. Many numbers are occupied with Sir Roger de Coverley, whom Addison made a charming character, very different to the ordinary squire of the day. He is an old-fashioned Christian gentleman, a kind ruler of his tenants, and rather strange to town ways when he comes up to London. At one time the *Spectator* visits him in his home, and several papers describe his life there. The *Spectator* was read with the greatest delight; the Queen had it on her breakfast-table every morning; it ran for about two years (1711-1712). Afterwards in 1714 Addison started it again, without Steele, bringing it out three days a week for six months.

With the accession of George I. the Whigs came in again, and Addison became Secretary for Ireland; but he did not like Dublin, and soon obtained another post in his beloved London. While in Ireland he renewed his friendship with Swift. Politics had parted them, but neither had ever attacked the other. It was otherwise with Pope. He imagined, probably quite unjustly, that Addison had wronged him in connection with his translation of Homer, and in revenge sneered at him in one of his poems as ill-natured, and fond of keeping all the talk to himself in his coffee-house. Addison really was a genial and delightful talker. A lady of the day says, "Addison was the best company." After his return to London Addison married a widowed peeress, mistress of Holland House; but he still preferred his club to aristocratic society. A few years later he died at the age of forty-eight. "See," he said to his stepson, "with what peace a Christian dies." His great work was that he

showed that wit and humour can be allied to virtue and religion, which had been forgotten since the Restoration.

Daniel Defoe and "Robinson Crusoe."—The famous story of *Robinson Crusoe* was published in 1719, the year of Addison's death. The author, Daniel Defoe, originally a tradesman, had fought for Monmouth, and joined the Prince of Orange's forces. After the Revolution he had for some years a post under government. He wrote on public questions books, pamphlets, and in newspapers. Then he started writing stories, and *Robinson Crusoe* was the first. Among others were the *Memoirs of a Cavalier*, the history of an imaginary explorer and pirate, and an account of the Plague by an imaginary eye-witness. His stories, all written in the form of "autobiography" (*i.e.* a person's life written by himself), are so extraordinarily lifelike that to the reader they seem really true. They are all mere stories, not written with a purpose like *Gulliver's Travels*, and are the beginning of the modern novel. They were very popular; but Defoe was not a great man in society like Swift, Pope, and Addison.

Literature in the reign of George II.—In the reign of George II. there was little original literature except the novels of Thomas Fielding and Samuel Richardson. The poet Gray wrote his well-known *Elegy*. The great Dr. Johnson wrote papers like the *Spectator*, and compiled his *Dictionary*; but his real fame belongs to the early years of George III.

SUMMARY.

Evils of the age according to writers of the day; their real extent and cause—Frivolous life of London society; its amusement—Clubs—The Mohawks—Duelling—Country life—Dress—The Church; its decline; the Wesleyan revival—Growth of wealth and trade; the Bank of England and "South Sea Bubble"—Growth of London—Architecture—Parliament; its out-of-date composition—The New Calendar—Army and Navy—Great age of literature in Anne's reign; Pope; Addison and the *Spectator*; Swift; Defoe—Literature in George II.'s reign.

SOVEREIGNS OF GREAT BRITAIN.[1]

1603-1760.

Dates of beginning of reigns.

James I. 1603
Charles I. 1625
[Commonwealth . 1649-1660
Protectors—
Oliver Cromwell . 1653
Richard Cromwell 1658-1659]
Charles II. . . . 1660
James II. 1685
William and Mary . . 1689
William III. alone . . 1694
Anne 1702
George I. . . . 1714
George II. . . 1727-1760

[1] The governments of England and Scotland were not actually united (except from the conquest of Scotland by Cromwell to the Restoration) till the reign of Anne; but James I. and the Stuarts called themselves Kings of Great Britain.

DATES.

1605. The Gunpowder Plot.
1607. The Foundation of Virginia.
1620. The Pilgrim Fathers.
1645. Battle of Naseby.
1649. Execution of Charles I.
1660. The Restoration.
1665. The Plague of London.
1666. The Fire of London.
1688. Landing of the Prince of Orange.
1690. Battle of the Boyne.
1704. Battle of Blenheim.
1707. The Union with Scotland.
1715. The "Fifteen."
1745-6. The "Forty-five."
1751. Clive at Arcot.
1755. Braddock's defeat near Fort Duquesne.
1756. The Black Hole of Calcutta.
1757. Battle of Plassey.
1759. The "Year of Victories." Battles of Quebec, Minden, Quiberon Bay.

INDEX

Acts: Corporation, 60; Habeas Corpus, 623; Mutiny, 688; Septennial, 726; Settlement, 695; Test, 621; Toleration, 689; Triennial, 690.
Addison and the *Spectator*, 789-792.
America, 535, 545, 628, 722, 733, 752.
Anson, Commodore, 738, 746.
Arcot, 751.
Argyll, Earl of, 625, 631.
—— Duke of, 723.

Bacon, Sir Francis, 541, 647.
Bank of England, 778.
Barebones Parliament, 593.
Battles:—Almanza, 706; Beachy Head, 682; Blenheim, 704; Boyne, 682; Culloden, 744; Dettingen, 740; Dunbar, 528; Dunes, 597; Edgehill, 565; Fontenoy, 740; Killiecrankie, 676; La Hogue, 634; Malplaquet, 707; Marston Moor, 570; Minden, 762; Naseby, 571; Newbury, 568-570; Oudenarde, 706; Plassey, 766; Preston, 575; Prestonpans, 741; Quebec, 759-762; Quiberon Bay, 762-764; Ramillies, 705; Sedgemoor, 632; Sheriffmuir, 723; Ticonderoga, 759; Wandewash, 766; Worcester, 598.
Bible, "Authorised Version," 534.
Blake, Admiral, 585-665.
Bolingbroke, Viscount, 709-715, 722, 727.
Bombay, 608, 736.
Boscawen, Admiral, 762.
Braddock, General, 752-754.
Brunswick, House of, 719.
Buckingham, Duke of, 533-551.
Bunyan, John, 663.
Butler, Samuel, 665.
Byng, Admiral, 756.

Calcutta, 736, 764-766.
Canada, 545, 734, 735, 752.
Caroline, Queen, 728-731.
Cecil, Sir Robert, 531, 538.
Charles Edward, Prince, 741-748.
Charles, Archduke, 696, 710, 738.
Charles XII., Sweden, 726.
Civil War, outbreak of, 563.
Clarendon, E. of (Hyde), 588, 606, 616.
Claverhouse (V. Dundee), 624, 675.
Clive, Robert, 749, 752, 767.
Compton, Bishop, 635, 639, 641.
Coote, Gen., 766, 767.—Cope, Sir J., 741.
Covenanters, 586, 608, 624, 625.
Cromwell, Oliver, 528, 550, 563, 597, 605.
Cromwell, Richard and Henry, 598, 605.—Cumberland, Duke of, 740-757.

Danby, Earl of, 621-623.
Declaration of Indulgence, 619, 626, 636; of Right, 644.
Defoe's *Robinson Crusoe*, 792.
De Ruyter, 590, 609, 611, 619.
Divine Right, 530.
Dryden, John, 665.—Dunkirk, 597, 608.
Dupleix, Marquis of, 746, 749, 751, 752.

East India Company, 546, 736.
Edict of Nantes, 633.
"Elector Palatine," 539, 552.
Eliot, Sir John, 550.
Elizabeth, Princess, 528, 552.
Essex, Earl of, 565-570.
Eugène, Prince, 701, 711, 731.
Evelyn John, 666-669.
Exclusion Bill, 624.

Fairfax, 568-586, 599.
Falkland, Viscount, 558, 560, 568.
Ferdinand, Prince, 757, 762.
Frederick, Prince of Wales, 731.
Frederick the Great of Prussia, 738, 756, 798.

Galileo, 647.—Gibraltar, 705, 712.
Glencoe, Massacre of, 678.
Grand Remonstrance, 559.
Gunpowder Plot, 534.
Gustavus Adolphus, Sweden, 552

Halifax, Marquis of, 633, 639, 642.
Hampden, John, 550-568.
Hampton Court Conference, 532.
Hanover, House of, 719.
Hawke, Admiral, 746, 762, 767.
Henrietta Maria, Queen, 548, 558, 581.
Henry, Prince, 528, 538.
Highlanders, 573, 741, 743, 744, 747.
Hindoos, 735.
Huguenots, 550, 552, 633.
Hutchinson, Colonel, 665.

India, 546, 735-737, 746.
Ireton, 575, 586, 605.—Ironsides, 568.
Irish Rebellion, 559.

Jacobites, 674.—Jamaica, 595.
James Edward, Prince, 718, 723.
Jeffreys, Judge, 632, 633, 642.

Kepler, 647.
Kirke, Colonel, 632, 680.

Laud, Archbishop, 553, 554, 556, 569.
Limerick, Broken Treaty of, 683.
London, Fire of, 614; Plague of, 611.
Londonderry siege, 678-681.
Louis XIV., 608; XV., 722.
Louisiana, 734.—Louisburg, 746, 759.

Macdonald, Flora, 745.
Mackay, General, 675-677, 686, 722.
Madras, 736, 746, 766.
Mar, Earl of, 723, 724.
Maria Theresa, 738, 746, 749, 756.
Marlborough, Duchess of, 698, 709.
—— D. of (Churchill), 632, 642, 691-711.
Meer Jaffier, 765, 766.
Milton, John, 662, 663.
Minorca, 756.—Moguls, 546, 736.
Monk, General, 588, 598, 607.
Monmouth, Duke of, 624-632.
Montcalm, Marquis of, 754, 757-760.
Montrose, Marquis of, 571-573, 586.

Namur, Siege, 680.
National Debt, 689.
Newcastle, Duke of, 755, 757, 759.
Newfoundland, 545, 712, 733.
New Netherlands, 545.
New Orleans, 734.—New York, 611, 733.
Newspapers, 652.
Newton, Sir Isaac, 648-650.
Nithsdale, Lord, 725, 726.
Nova Scotia, 545, 712, 733, 735, 754.

Oates, Titus, 622, 623, 630.
Ormonde, Duke of, 711, 715, 722.
Oxford, Earl of, 709, 713, 715, 722.

Pennsylvania, 628, 733.
Pepys, Samuel, 669.
Peter the Great, 726.
Petition of Right, 550.
Pilgrim Fathers, 544.
Pitt, William, 755-762, 767.
Pondicherry, 737, 746, 767.
Pope, Alexander, 787.
Popish Plot, 622.
Portugal, 668, 706.
Presbyterianism, 569-575.
Pride's Purge, 576.
Puritans, 531, 553, 558, 562, 583, 607.
Pym, John, 550-569.

Quakers, 584, 620, 752.
Quebec, 545, 759-761.

Raleigh, Sir Walter, 531, 539.
Red Indians, 734.
Richelieu, Cardinal, 550, 552.
Rooke, Admiral, 702, 705.
Royal Society, the, 647.
Rupert, Prince, 563, 609.
Russell, Lord William, 628.
—— Admiral, 685-693.
Ryehouse Plot, 627.

St. James's Park, 661.
St. Paul's Cathedral, 614, 615.
Sacheverell, Dr., 708.
Sarsfield, General, 683-686.
Savoy, Conference, 607.
Saxe, Marshal, 740-746.
Schomberg, Marshal, 633, 681, 682.
Shaftesbury, Earl of, 622-624, 626.
Shrewsbury, Duke of, 715.
Sharp, Archbishop, 624.
Ship Money, 554.
Sophia, Electress, 695, 714.
South Sea Bubble, 778.
Star Chamber, 553.
Steele and *The Tatler*, 790.
Strafford, E. of (Wentworth), 552, 556, 557.
Stuart, Arabella, 532.
Surajah Dowlah, 764-766.
Swift, Dean, 709, 787-789.

Tangiers, 608, 609.
Tottendal, Count Lally, 766, 767.
Tories, 625, 643, 694, 698, 707-710.
Torrington, Earl of, 682.
Tourville, Admiral, 682-686.
Treaty of Ryswick, 697; of Utrecht, 711.
Trial of Seven Bishops, 637.
Trichinopoly, 751.
Tyrconnell, Earl of, 635.
Tyrone, Earl of, 537.

Ulster, 537, 559.
Union of England and Scotland, 716.

Virginia, 536, 733, 752.

Walker, Parson, 680, 682.
Walpole, Sir Robert, 727-739.
Wars: Austrian Succession, 738; Dutch, (1) 590, (2) 609, (3) 619; Seven Years', 756; Spanish, 737; Spanish Succession, 698.
Washington, Major, 752, 754.
Wentworth, Sir Thomas, 552, 553.
West Indies, 546.—Wesleyans, 777.
Whigs and Tories, 625.
William of Orange, 619-622, 639.
Wolfe, General, 759-761, 767.
Wren, Sir Christopher, 615.

York, Duke of, 606-626.

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CHAPTER LII

George III., 1760-1820

(I)

Loss of the American Colonies

George III. a popular King. His Views on Kingship.—By the accession of George III., son of Frederick Prince of Wales, at the age of twenty-two, the country had again a native-born King, who gloried in the fact, as he stated in his speech at the opening of his first Parliament. He cared little for Hanover, and never visited it; indeed it was said in jest that he could not find it on the map. When his sons grew up, he generally sent one of them there to represent him.

George III., though narrow-minded and obstinate, was a simple-minded, kind-hearted, God-fearing man. He and his Queen, Charlotte, a German princess, set a much-needed example to the society of the day, though their Court was distinctly dull. So George III., unlike his two predecessors, was really popular, especially with the middle classes, who felt him to be like themselves. Some of the old loyalty to the throne returned; and what remained of Jacobitism completely died out.

But on the fortunes of Britain the accession of George III. had a bad effect. His reign began with Britain triumphant under her great war minister, Pitt. In a little more than twenty years she had been worsted in a great war, and lost her American colonies. The fact was that the young King had been taught by his mother and his tutor, the

Scottish Earl of Bute, who was a Tory, to think it his duty to be what they called a real "king," that is, to make the ministers his servants, instead of letting them govern as George I. and George II. had done. So George III.

George III. Early in his reign.

looked upon Pitt, not as the country's champion, but as a too powerful minister of whom he must get rid.

His plan was to make peace as soon as possible, so that Pitt would not be wanted as war minister, dismiss Pitt and Newcastle, make Bute Prime Minister, and break the power of the great Whig families which had so long ruled

the country. This he hoped to be able to do, because the Whigs had been split up into factions ever since Walpole's day, and the Tories were now stronger; for, as the Jacobite danger had passed away, they were no longer regarded as rebels. Moreover, by means of patronage and bribery, he won to his side a number of members who always voted as he wished, and were called the "King's Friends." Thus during these years there were really several parties in Parliament, and the history of the Ministries is very confusing. How far George III. succeeded in making himself a "real king" you will read later.

The Earl of Bute becomes Minister. Resignations of Pitt and Newcastle.—The first thing George III. did was to give Bute, though a Tory, a high post in the Ministry. Soon after, both Pitt and Newcastle saved him the trouble of dismissing them by resigning. Pitt resigned first because the Ministry would not declare war on Spain, which he knew was going to attack us. Then Newcastle, who was already offended because George managed the patronage himself, resigned owing to Bute's refusal to continue Frederick's subsidy. After his many years of power, Newcastle left office very much the poorer. Feeble as he was as a statesman, he was an honest man; though he bribed others, he took no bribes himself. The way was now clear for Bute; and he became head of the Ministry, now partly Tory, partly Whig.

Treaty of Paris, 1763.—There is little to relate of the war after the accession of George III. Spain openly joined France, and Bute had to declare war on her. But her interference was too late to have any effect; its only result to her was that she lost Cuba in the West Indies and Manila in the Philippines in the East. France also lost some West Indian islands, for our fleet was now again supreme at sea. But in Europe the war was gradually coming to a standstill: Russia, having a new sovereign, withdrew from the war; and France and Austria were wearied out by the resistance of the redoubtable Frederick.

Bute therefore had little difficulty in making peace in 1763. Britain recovered Minorca, kept Canada, and, by exchanging Cuba and Manila for Florida, secured the whole east coast of North America as far inland as the Mississippi. France got back her West Indian islands, and gave Spain, as the price of her useless help, Louisiana, which included the right to all the land west of the Mississippi. France also recovered Pondicherry in India, on condition it was not fortified. In making the Peace Britain threw over Frederick, though France agreed to withdraw from the war. The same day Frederick made peace with Maria Theresa; he had preserved all his dominions, and devoted the rest of his life to healing the ravages of war in Prussia.

The Seven Years' War had settled the two questions that had troubled Europe for twenty years—Britain's oversea struggle with France, and Prussia's struggle to assert herself against Austria. Britain had reached a height of power undreamt of hitherto, and Prussia had become a great kingdom. But Frederick never forgave us for deserting him. France too was furious at her defeat: she at once began to rebuild her fleet to be ready for the day of vengeance. It was little more than ten years when that day came, and then we had no ally to help us.

Bute's Unpopularity and Resignation.—When the Peace was approved by the House of Commons, which was only managed by means of disgraceful bribery—£200 for a vote—the Princess of Wales exclaimed, "Now at last my son is King of England." But the Londoners were very angry, and vented their fury on the Princess of Wales and Bute. "No petticoat government, and no Scottish minister" was the cry of the time; and it was a favourite practice of the mobs to carry about a petticoat and jack-boot (as representing Bute), and burn them. Bute was so afraid of personal violence that he went about with a bodyguard of prize-fighters. But he could not stand up against his unpopularity, and very soon resigned. For a few years

he remained the King's secret adviser. Of the Princess of Wales we hear little more; she died in 1772.

Grenville's Ministry. The Prosecution of Wilkes.—The new head of the Ministry after Bute was George Grenville, who was the brother-in-law of Pitt, but on bad terms with him. Against him were Newcastle's followers, called the "Old Whigs," and Pitt's friends. They were what is called the "Opposition." Two acts of Grenville's Ministry must be mentioned. The first is the case of Wilkes. John Wilkes, a Whig member of Parliament, a clever but bad man, had started a paper, called the *North Briton*, in opposition to Bute. In this paper he declared that there were falsehoods in the King's speech after the Peace. Though the ministers are really responsible for the King's speech, George was very angry. At his request the Ministry had Wilkes and others concerned in the paper arrested for "seditious libel." This was done in a way that was really illegal, and Wilkes became a hero with the London mob, who shouted for Wilkes and Liberty. Wilkes went to law and obtained his release on the ground of "privilege of Parliament," for members cannot be arrested except for treason or serious crime; and he also obtained damages for the illegal method of his arrest. But the Commons expelled him from the House; and soon after, having fought a duel, he fled to France. But his struggle with the House of Commons was not yet over.

Grenville imposes the Stamp Tax on the American Colonies, 1765.—The second act of this Ministry was far worse. It was found necessary to keep a small force in America, owing to danger from the Indians and a possible French rising in Canada. As the troops were for the defence of the colonists, it seemed right that they should pay for them, especially as the mother country had spent such large sums for them in the late war. So Grenville proposed to obtain this money by making a law that all legal papers, leases, receipted bills and the like, must be stamped with a government stamp at a small charge,

as was the law in Britain. It had always been held that Parliament had the right to make laws for British subjects over-sea. But the colonists, being freedom-loving Englishmen, had always disliked interference by Parliament, and Walpole had wisely given it up. The colonists had assemblies of their own which levied taxes; and they declared that they would not allow Parliament to tax them because they did not send members to it. Pitt strongly supported the colonists; he wanted an Empire such as we have at present, in which the different parts governed themselves under the Crown.

However, the colonists would not offer to contribute any money; so, in spite of Pitt, Parliament passed the Stamp Act. The angry colonists flatly refused to pay the tax; and, when the stamps arrived, they attacked the offices and burnt all the stamps. Another way they showed their anger was by refusing to buy British goods. So began the quarrel which ended in the separation of the Colonies, and the foundation of the United States of America.

Repeal of the Stamp Act. Pitt as Earl of Chatham makes a Ministry, 1766.—However, George III. disliked Grenville, and dismissed him. He now wanted Pitt back again; but he refused to take office. So George had to accept the Marquis of Rockingham, leader of the Old Whigs, whom he hated most of all. Pitt now made the mistake of his life in refusing Rockingham's appeal to join his Ministry. Rockingham repealed the Stamp Act, but passed a resolution that Parliament had a right to tax the colonies. Still for the present the trouble was over. George, however, was angry and dismissed Rockingham; and Pitt at last consented to take office. His Ministry was a mixture of Whigs and Tories. He himself being in poor health, for he always suffered from the gout, went to the House of Lords as Earl of Chatham. This injured the popularity he had won as the "Great Commoner."

Chatham's Schemes. Clive's last Service in India. Chatham's Illness and Retirement, 1768.—Chatham had

great schemes in his mind. One was to strengthen Britain's position in Europe, for he knew France was hostile; another was to settle the American trouble. Thirdly, the position of the East India Company required regulating. It had now gained complete control of Bengal, which had twice the population of Great Britain. This was too great a responsibility for a trading company; and its servants used their position to enrich themselves. Lord Clive had recently been sent out as governor of Bengal, and had checked these abuses; but he had come back after two years in ill health. His end was sad, for his mind became affected; and a few years later he committed suicide.

Frederick the Great's unfriendliness spoilt Lord Chatham's first scheme. And he himself unfortunately became so ill with gout that for a time his brain was affected. He became gloomy and melancholy, and refused to discuss matters with his colleagues. Then he went off to Bath, and after a time, declaring his gout better, started back to London to resume his duties. But on reaching Marlborough, he stayed a long time at the Castle Inn (now the famous school), seeing nobody, but keeping great state, and making all the waiters and stablemen wear his livery. When he did return to London he still refused to see any one, even his colleagues. At last, after a year and three-quarters, he resigned his office at the end of 1768.

The Ministry impose Tea and other Duties on the Colonies, 1767. Its Unpopularity.—In Lord Chatham's absence his colleagues had been quarrelling among themselves, and going from bad to worse. The Chancellor of the Exchequer did the very thing Chatham was opposed to, and again taxed the American colonies. He did not revive the Stamp Tax, but put custom duties on tea and four or five other articles, which altogether brought in only £40,000 a year. The colonies, already irritated by the Stamp Tax, were now equally determined to resist custom duties. The Massachusetts Assembly at Boston sent a

letter of protest to the other assemblies. For this it was dissolved by the governor. Rioting broke out at Boston, so two regiments were sent there.

The Ministry went on after Lord Chatham's resignation. It obtained a majority at the general election in 1768, by corruption and the support of the King's Friends. Wilkes was chosen for Middlesex at this election. The House of Commons expelled him, but he was triumphantly re-elected. The House declared the election null and void; but a third time he was re-elected, whereupon the House declared his defeated opponent the member for Middlesex. This it had no real right to do, and there was great popular indignation.

By this time the Ministry was generally hated and despised. It was, perhaps, the most unpopular Ministry that ever governed. The feeling against it was shown by the famous "Letters of Junius." These were letters which appeared in a newspaper, addressed to the head of the Ministry and other members, and attacking their conduct in the most scathing language. The writer was never known; he signed himself Junius, because it was the name of two champions of liberty in ancient Rome. For four years these letters continued to appear, to the great annoyance of the Ministry.

Lord North's Ministry, 1770-1782. George III.'s Power. Growing Discontent of the Colonies.—About a year after his resignation, Lord Chatham, restored in mind, took his place again in the House of Lords. He joined the Old Whigs in fiercely denouncing his old colleagues, especially for taxing the colonies. This made the head of the Government resign. His place was taken by another minister, Lord North, a clever manager of Parliament, good-tempered and popular, but not a great statesman. The most important thing about him is that he was the leader of the King's Friends, and so was just the man to carry out George's idea of government. During his Ministry, which lasted twelve years, George III. was practically Prime Minister, as he wished to be.

It was Lord North's Ministry that finally lost us the American colonies. For this George III. has always been much blamed. But the nation was equally blamable; a general election a few years later showed that the great majority was just as determined as the King to maintain the mother country's rights. Only the Old Whigs and Lord Chatham championed the cause of the colonies. Lord Chatham foresaw the break-up of the Empire for which he had done so much; and the Whigs felt that the colonies were struggling for freedom against the King and British Parliament, just as the Parliament had struggled for its rights against Charles I. Lord North indeed made one attempt to end the quarrel after he became head of the Government. As the English merchants were annoyed at losing the trade with the colonies, he repealed all the duties except the one on tea. This he kept to assert the rights of the mother country; so the colonists were more than ever determined to resist it.

The "Boston Tea Party," 1773.—For over three years things were growing gradually worse. First of all, during a riot in Boston, some soldiers fired in self-defence, and a few of the rioters were killed: this caused great excitement. Then a British cruiser, engaged in stopping smuggling, ran ashore, and was burnt by some colonists. Finally, in December 1773, some tea ships from India arrived in Boston; and some men, disguised as Red Indians, boarded them and threw £20,000 worth of tea into the harbour. As a punishment for the "Boston Tea Party," as it was called, Lord North abolished the Massachusetts Assembly, and deprived Boston of its trade by removing the custom-house to a neighbouring port.

This made the New Englanders more defiant than ever. The Assembly went on meeting at Concord, twenty miles from Boston. It began to form a militia, and "minute-men," ready to turn out armed at a minute's notice, were enrolled. However, the Colonies made one more attempt at peace. A General Congress met at Philadelphia, and

sent a dignified statement of their rights to George III., not unlike Parliament's "Petition of Right" to Charles I. At the same time it was agreed that if the mother country used force, the other colonies would stand by Massachusetts.

Beginning of the War of American Independence. Lexington and Bunker Hill, 1775.—For some time nothing happened, for the British governor at Boston, General Gage, was waiting for troops from home, and was still hoping that peace might be maintained. But in the spring of 1775 he sent four hundred soldiers to destroy war-stores which he heard were being collected at Concord. This led to the first shedding of blood, for the alarm was given; and on their way back the troops were assailed by "minutemen," who fired at them from behind trees, hedges, and buildings, and killed and wounded a great many. This is called the battle of Lexington, from a village of that name on the road. It greatly encouraged the rebels; and soon 20,000 were collected round Boston harbour to shut the British in. Boston itself in those days was on a promontory in the harbour; now it is spread all round it.

In June, when 10,000 more troops had come, General Gage sent a division to drive the rebels from a hill overlooking the harbour, called Bunker Hill. So stubbornly did the New England farmers hold their ground, that the hill was only taken after very heavy loss at the third assault, when their ammunition was used up. And, though beaten, the rebels were still more encouraged by the result of their second fight. The battle of Bunker Hill is still remembered with pride in the United States.

Washington appointed General. The British leave Boston.—Soon after the battle, General Washington, the Major Washington of the last war, who had been appointed commander-in-chief by the Congress, arrived in the camp before Boston, and began to organise a regular army. A flag was made of red and white stripes with a Union Jack in the corner, which shows that the colonists were not yet fighting for separation. About the same time General

CANADA
Quebec
R. St. Lawrence
L. Superior
Montreal
MASSACHUSETTS
L. Michigan
L. Huron
Lake Champlain
Crown Pt.
Ticonderoga
NEW HAMPSHIRE
NEW ENGLAND
Saratoga
1777
L. Ontario
1775
Bunkers Hill 1775
Boston
MASS.
YORK
CONNECTICUT
RHODE ISLAND
L. Erie
New York
PENNSYLVANIA
Brooklyn 1776
Sandy Hook
Brandywine 1777
Philadelphia
NEW JERSEY
Baltimore
MARYLAND
DELAWARE
(Washington)
R. Ohio
VIRGINIA
Yorktown 1781
Chesapeake B.
ATLANTIC OCEAN
Alleghany Mts.
NORTH CAROLINA
R. Mississippi
SOUTH CAROLINA
1780
Charleston
GEORGIA
Savannah
New Orleans
1814
FLORIDA
Spanish up to 1763 & after 1783
British 1763-1783
THE THIRTEEN COLONIES
to illustrate Revolutionary War
and War of 1812-14
Scale, 1:20,000,000
English Miles
0 50 100 200 300 400
N.B. The City of Washington was founded in 1790
Battlefields shown thus 1776
Emery Walker sc.

Gage resigned the command and was succeeded by General Howe, brother of a famous admiral of whom you will read. There was no more fighting round Boston, but an attack was made on Canada. The French in Canada still hated the colonists, and having been allowed their own laws and religion, were loyal to Britain. The invaders took Montreal; but on the last night of the year, an attack on Quebec was repulsed in a storm and Canada was saved. Washington had great difficulty in keeping his army together through the winter; but in the next spring he forced Howe to leave Boston. He sailed off to Halifax in Nova Scotia, to wait for reinforcements, and then renew the war elsewhere. Nova Scotia, having very few settlers, was not yet self-governing, and had not joined the other colonies.

Declaration of Independence, July 4, 1776.—Meanwhile it was plain that a much larger army was necessary to crush the colonists. Large reinforcements were sent in the spring. As the standing army was small, Hanoverians and other Germans had been hired to swell the numbers. Lord Chatham protested angrily against using foreigners to fight our fellow-countrymen; it certainly made the colonists more bitter than ever. The British forces now numbered forty thousand well-trained men, quite enough, it was thought, to crush the ill-trained levies. But before beginning fighting, Howe had orders to try and bring about a reconciliation. It was too late. On July 4, a day now celebrated in the United States with speech-making and fireworks, the Congress voted for independence, though only by a majority of one. But that one vote was enough to turn the "United Colonies" into the "United States of America," with a new flag, the famous "Stars and Stripes," instead of the Union Jack and Stripes.

Washington driven from New York. The British General misses his Opportunity.—This summer the war began in earnest. General Howe sent part of his forces to drive the rebels out of Canada. This was done, and Canada

was safe for the rest of the war. With his main army Howe sailed against New York, which, being half Dutch in population, was less hostile than Boston. In a few weeks Washington, badly beaten, was pursued by Howe to Philadelphia, the seat of the Congress, with the loss of most of his stores and cannons.

General Washington, as President of the United States.

There was great dismay among the Americans, as they may now be called; many people surrendered, and the capture of Philadelphia might have been the finishing blow. But Philadelphia was on the other side of the river Dela-

ware; and, as Washington had seized all the boats, Howe waited for the river to freeze, so as to cross on the ice. But Washington, who never lost heart however things went against him, crossed the river in December, surprised two of his posts, and captured a thousand Germans; whereupon Howe retired to New York. His stroke had failed, and the Americans took heart again.

Capture of Philadelphia. Surrender of Saratoga, 1777.—The next summer Howe again attacked Philadelphia. This time he was quite successful. Sailing round to the south of the Delaware, he met and beat Washington, took the city, and beat him again when he tried to retake it. Unfortunately in another quarter a great disaster occurred, which far outweighed the capture of Philadelphia and proved the turning-point of the war. It had also been arranged that the force in Canada, under General Burgoyne, should march down to the river Hudson and there meet the troops left at New York. It was a mistake to undertake the two campaigns at once; but there was confusion in the orders from home owing to the time taken in communicating across the Atlantic.

General Burgoyne marched down by Lake Champlain. He advanced very slowly, owing to the rainy weather and the rough country. At first the Americans could not resist him, but his slowness gave time for the militia to assemble; and at last, in October, when he was two hundred miles from Canada and a hundred miles from New York, he was surrounded in wild country by very superior numbers. After some hard fighting, in which the troops behaved splendidly, Burgoyne was forced by want of provisions to surrender at Saratoga with 3500 men, half his original force. The general in New York had started to help him, but he had not got far when he heard that all was over.

France declares War, 1778. Death of Chatham.—Not only did Burgoyne's surrender encourage Americans, it also decided France to help them. Up till now it had been thought both in France and Britain that we were winning

Mansell, photo.)

The Earl of Chatham fainting in the House of Lords.
Notice that the Peers in those days wore their robes in debates.

easily. Burgoyne's march had been watched with the greatest interest in both countries, and the unexpected result was as much a joy to the French as it was a disappointment to the British. However, war with France roused all their patriotism, and private persons freely contributed money to raise fresh regiments. Chatham could not this time come to the rescue of his country, for his health was failing rapidly. A Whig duke proposed in the House of Lords that the troops should be withdrawn from America. Lord Chatham left his sick-bed to protest against such a cowardly course, which would break up the Empire and humble Britain before France. When he entered the House, the peers all rose in respect. He spoke with some of his old fire; but rising again later to reply, he faltered, pressed his hand on his heart, and fell back unconscious. A month later he died at the age of sixty-nine, and thus was spared the sight of the humiliation of the country.

The Naval War in Europe. Spain joins in, 1779. The British at bay. Gibraltar besieged.—Britain had now a stern struggle before her. France by this time had built a strong navy; and ours, owing to neglect, was not as superior in numbers as it ought to have been. France sent a strong squadron to America with a force of volunteers for Washington's army. She was also preparing trouble for us in India, as will be described later. And in the summer her Brest fleet fought an indecisive action with our Channel fleet. The next year (1779) things became worse, for Spain joined in, thinking it a good chance to retake Gibraltar and Minorca. The real way to help the Americans and recover Gibraltar would have been to beat our Channel fleet and land an army in England. But the Spanish fleet, though large, was, as always, inefficient. This summer, indeed, the French and Spanish did appear in the Channel, in such numbers that our fleet dared not attack them. Fortunately there was an outbreak of smallpox among them, so that they had to retire. After this, the main fighting in Europe was at Gibraltar.

The Dutch join in the War, 1780.—To increase our difficulties, at the end of 1780 we were also at war with the Dutch, who objected to our searching neutral merchant ships for goods belonging to our enemies. The British fleet had to guard the Channel and North Sea, help Gibraltar, protect the American coast, the West Indies and India, and look after our merchant fleets. Minorca had to be left to its fate; but more than once our admirals skilfully brought stores and reinforcements to Gibraltar in face of superior numbers. The Dutch fleet, which was small but efficient, was worsted after an obstinate battle near the Dogger Bank.

The War in America. Naval Battle in the West Indies.—We must now return to the war in America. General Howe had resigned, because more troops were not sent him; and, after France had declared war, his successor, General Clinton, was ordered to retire from Philadelphia to New York. Washington had had the greatest difficulty in keeping his army together during the winter. He was encamped in Valley Forge, twenty miles from Philadelphia; the men were ill-clad and many of them bootless, and snow was on the ground. But his indomitable resolution carried him through. He followed the British to New York, where for the rest of the war the two armies faced each other.

Washington had great hopes when the French squadron arrived, for it was superior in numbers to the British one. But Admiral Howe, who was in command, skilfully foiled the French, and they went off to the West Indies, greatly to Washington's disappointment. For the next two years the chief naval fighting was in the West Indies. The British were very hard pressed, for they were generally inferior in numbers. They were worsted in some battles, but never lost a ship. When the famous Admiral Rodney came out in 1780, things went better for us.

After the war came to a standstill in the north, General Clinton sent a force by sea to attack the Carolinas, where there were said to be many loyalists. As in the north, at

first they won several successes and captured towns, including the capital, Charlestown. But they were disappointed in the help of the loyalists, and could not conquer the country. Still, by 1781, the Americans were terribly exhausted by the long war: their trade had suffered terribly. The French did not seem to help them; and they did not know how much longer they could hold out.

Surrender of Lord Cornwallis at Yorktown, October 1781.—That very year, however, they won their second and final great success. Lord Cornwallis, who commanded in the south, marched into Virginia, and took post at Yorktown on Chesapeake Bay, where he was watched by a French force. He felt quite safe, as Rodney had promised to keep the sea open. Just at that time a new French admiral, the Count de Grasse, reached the West Indies with reinforcements; and Washington wrote to him to come to the American coast. So he sailed there with his whole fleet, and blockaded Chesapeake Bay. Admiral Rodney was in ill-health and on the point of returning home, and not knowing that the whole of the French fleet had gone, he only sent part of his. So when the British attacked the French they were outnumbered by twenty-four ships to twenty, and were beaten off. A few days later, in the middle of September, Washington arrived before Yorktown with part of his army after a march of three hundred miles. Cornwallis now had only eight thousand men against twenty thousand, and his attempts to free himself were defeated. General Clinton wrote from New York that the fleet would make another attempt to relieve him; but the very day it sailed, Lord Cornwallis was forced by want of food and ammunition to surrender with 6500 men, 2000 of whom were in hospital.

Loss of Minorca. Rodney's great Victory. Repulse of the Attack on Gibraltar, 1782.—This second surrender really ended the war on land, though there was a little more unimportant fighting in the south. There was now no hope of beating the Americans. When the news reached

Admiral Lord Rodney.

London in November, Lord North exclaimed, "All is over." He struggled on a few months, but resigned next spring to the great indignation of George III., who had again to accept the Marquis of Rockingham. Peace was not yet made, as the French and Spanish had still their own objects to accomplish. Early in 1782 the Spanish, after a long blockade, starved Minorca into surrender, for we could not send a fleet into the Mediterranean to relieve it. Fortunately the tide now turned. Admiral Rodney went back to the West Indies, and in April won a great victory over De Grasse, capturing him and six of his ships; while in the autumn a furious attack on Gibraltar was completely repulsed; and soon afterwards Admiral Howe, with a fleet inferior to the allies, skilfully reprovisioned Gibraltar and reinforced the garrison, thus making it safe for another year.

Independence of the United States acknowledged, 1783.—These two defeats made the allies more ready to discuss terms of peace, and at last the Treaty of Versailles was signed in 1783. The thirteen United States of America obtained their independence; France obtained a few islands in the West Indies; but the only other important loss to Britain was Minorca, which Spain kept. France had to be satisfied with her revenge for the loss of Canada. She had torn a great piece out of the British Empire, and Britain's day was thought by the European nations to be over. The war had indeed been terribly expensive. It had doubled the National Debt, which now stood at nearly £270,000,000. But Britain was growing richer than ever; her manufactures were making enormous strides, so she could easily support the debt. It was France that was suffering from want of money, as you will see in a very few years' time. Britain was not really weakened by the loss of the American colonies, and she had a greater part than ever to play in the world's history.

The United States made a new constitution with a Federal Congress in addition to the State Assemblies.

Washington was elected the first President, and his name was given to the new capital which was founded.

Canada. The United Empire Loyalists.—Both during the war and after the peace, many loyal colonists left their homes in the United States and settled in Nova Scotia, the western part of which was made into the colony of New Brunswick, and on the St. Lawrence west of the old French colony. They were given lands, and the title of "United Empire Loyalists," of which they were very proud. They numbered about eighty thousand, rather more than the French. In a few years Canada was divided into Upper Canada (English, capital Ontario) and Lower Canada (French, capital Quebec); and each was given a certain amount of self-government.

Ireland obtains an Independent Parliament.—You have not heard of Ireland for some time. That unhappy country was still in the wretched and poor condition described in Swift's *Life*. It had a Parliament, but the Roman Catholics, who formed two-thirds of the population, could neither sit in it nor vote at elections. It was still more corrupt than the British Parliament, and by an old law of Henry VII., no measures could become law without the consent of the British Government. The Roman Catholics still suffered under the cruel "penal laws," though they could not altogether be carried out; it was found impossible to prevent the clergy from coming to Ireland and performing the services; in fact the laws only made the Irish more loyal to their Church; and in the south secret societies were started to redress their wrongs by violence. This has been one of the troubles of Ireland ever since. The Presbyterian Scots in Ulster were also oppressed; and the whole country was impoverished by laws forbidding woollen and other trades, passed by the British Parliament, owing to the selfish jealousy of the British merchants.

During the war so many soldiers had been drawn from Ireland that, from fear of French raids, the Protestants of

the north were allowed to enroll themselves as volunteers; and by 1779 over fifty thousand were enrolled. There was at this time an able, patriotic, and eloquent Irishman, called Henry Grattan, who in the Irish House of Commons was demanding better treatment for Ireland. The volunteers were enthusiastic in his support, and against them the British Government was powerless. First the trade restrictions were abolished, though it proved too late to do much good. Then in 1782, after there had been a great meeting of volunteers at Dungannon, Rockingham's Ministry made the Irish Parliament free. So grateful were the Irish to Grattan, that they proposed to give him £100,000; but he would only take £50,000.

Ireland now had a parliament equal in power to the British one; but it must be remembered that it was only a Protestant parliament. It is known in history as "Grattan's Parliament."

Warren Hastings, First Governor-General. His Difficulties. The Enemies of the Company.—India, as well as Ireland, had been affected by the American War, for the French naturally attacked us there. The Indian possessions of the Company were now ruled by the governor of Bengal as governor-general, with a small council nominated by the British Parliament; this was the result of a "Regulating Act" passed by Lord North. The first governor-general was Warren Hastings, a man of great ability and a worthy successor to Clive. Hastings came of a county family of Worcestershire that had fallen into poverty and lost its estates. As a boy he gained a scholarship at Westminster School, and then, in 1750, like Clive, went out to India as a clerk. Later, he attracted the notice of Clive, and soon rose till he became governor of Bengal. As governor-general, Hastings had great difficulties. First of all, the majority of the new council were bitterly hostile to him, though he was working hard to improve the government, and they thwarted him as much as they could. With one of them he fought a duel and wounded him.

Emery Walker sc.

However, after a few years, a change in the members put the majority on his side, and this trouble passed away.

Next he had some hard wars to fight. In the former wars we had beaten the French in the south and conquered Bengal in the north, and the neighbouring states were under our influence. But there were other powerful states who hated the British power. Right across the centre of India were the fierce Mahrattas under five separate chiefs, who were pushing north, and had even got the feeble Mogul Emperor at Delhi into their power. Down in the south a general called Hyder Ali had seized the throne of Mysore, raised a strong army, and was conquering the states round him. Fortunately these states were jealous of one another; and the Mahratta chiefs too sometimes quarrelled.

War with the Mahrattas and Tippoo Sahib. Hastings' Harshness in raising Money.—Just about the time when the revolt of the American colonies began, the governor of Bombay brought on a war with the Mahrattas by taking the part of one of their chiefs who had lost his throne. The Company had now a considerable army, both British and Sepoys, but it was greatly in want of money. Hastings knew that no money could be sent him from home, and so he obtained money from some native rulers in ways that were distinctly harsh. The war began with a British reverse, but Hastings' energy restored matters.

Then came news that France had joined in the American War, and this added to Hastings' difficulties. We took Pondicherry and other French settlements; but the French stirred up Hyder Ali to attack Madras, and the Mahrattas attacked Bombay and Bengal. Hyder Ali, at the head of 80,000 men, ravaged the Carnatic for six weeks, and the feeble governor of Madras could do nothing. Fortunately Sir Eyre Coote, the hero of the last French war, had just come out as commander-in-chief. Hastings made peace with the Mahrattas, who were quarrelling among themselves, and sent Coote with every man he could spare against Hyder Ali, whom, after hard fighting, he beat in three

battles. Hyder Ali then died; but Hyder's son, Tippoo, continued the war, and a French squadron came out under a very able admiral. He had several hard fights with the British squadron, and was making things very awkward for us at Madras, when fortunately news came from Europe that peace had been made. Tippoo then gave up the struggle. The British power in India was saved, but the overthrow of Tippoo and the Mahrattas had to be left to the future.

SUMMARY.

George III.'s scheme to assert the royal power—Resignation of Pitt and Newcastle—The Earl of Bute Prime Minister Peace made; indignation of Frederick the Great—Grenville taxes the American Colonies; their indignation; the Stamp Tax withdrawn—Pitt (Earl of Chatham) forms a Ministry—His illness and resignation—Tea and other duties imposed on the colonies—Lord North's Ministry; George III. supreme.

The "Boston Tea Party"—War of American Independence; Lexington and Bunker Hill—Declaration of Independence—British victories, but want of energy—Surrender of Saratoga—France declares war—Death of Chatham—Spain declares war—Britain hard pressed at sea; siege of Gibraltar—Fighting ceases in the northern colonies—Attack on the southern colonies; surrender of Yorktown—Loss of Minorca; Rodney's victory in the West Indies—Repulse of the attack on Gibraltar—Peace; independence of the United States acknowledged—Canada; the United Loyalists.

Ireland; the volunteers; an independent Parliament granted—India; Warren Hastings first Governor-General; his difficulties, and wars.

DATES.

1765. American Stamp Act.
1775. Battles of Lexington and Bunker Hill.
1776. July 4, Declaration of American Independence.
1777. Surrender of Saratoga.
1781. Surrender of Yorktown.
1782. Rodney's victory.
1783. Independence of United States.

War of American Independence.

CHAPTER LIII

George III., 1760-1820

(II)

The Younger Pitt and the French Revolution

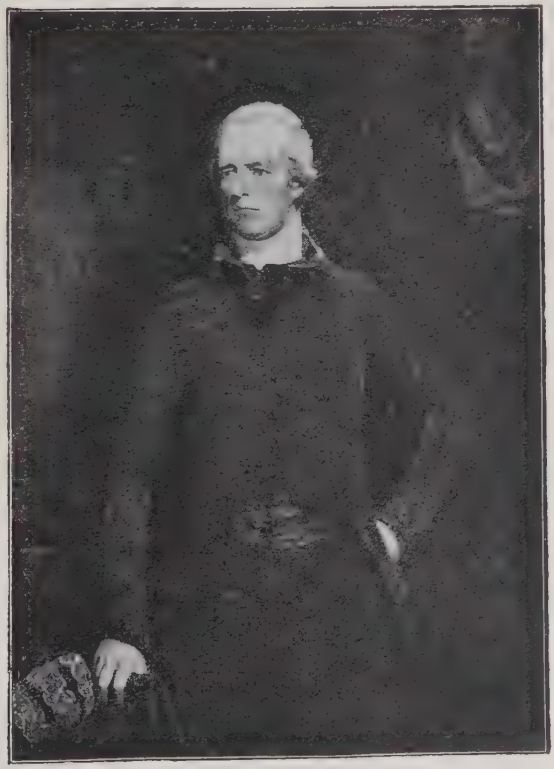
William Pitt the Younger.—For many years after the American War the chief interest in Parliamentary history was the rivalry of two rising statesmen, William Pitt and Charles James Fox.

William Pitt, the second son of Lord Chatham, was born in his father's great year, 1759. He was a very precocious boy. When his father was made a peer, he, being then seven years of age, said to his tutor, "I am glad I am the second son; I want to serve my country in the Commons like Papa." And this object he kept before him in his early studies. Owing to his delicate health he was taught at home, and at the early age of fourteen was ready for Cambridge. There he devoted himself to study, and was recognised as destined to a high career.

He took every opportunity of attending debates in Parliament, and was with his father when he made his last speech. His father's death left him with only £300 a year, and he began to study for the bar. But at a general election in 1780, through the influence of friends, he was elected for the "pocket borough" of Appleby, and very soon made himself a power in the House of Commons.

In his private life Pitt was strict; he was once tempted into gambling, but quickly gave it up. In manner he was proud and shy, but was beloved by his intimate friends.

Charles James Fox.—Very different was his rival and senior by ten years, Charles James Fox. His father, Henry Fox, had been a friend and ally of Lord Chatham in his early opposition to the Duke of Newcastle, but had



Mansell, photo.]
William Pitt the Younger, towards the end of his life.

deserted him for a post in the Ministry. Unlike Pitt, Henry Fox made money out of politics, and became very rich by holding the post of Paymaster to the Forces, and had been rewarded with the title of Lord Holland for his

services in 1763 in getting the Peace of Paris through the House of Commons. Charles, his third son, was educated at Eton and Oxford, and in 1768, at the age of nineteen, was elected a member of the House of Commons for a seat bought by his father. He began his political career as a Tory, and his first speech was against Wilkes. Two years

Mansell, photo.]

Charles James Fox.

later he was given a subordinate post by Lord North. But he quarrelled with Lord North and offended the King, who had him dismissed. Fox now joined the Whig opposition. His opinions gradually changed, and he became an eloquent champion of liberty, and the real

leader of the Whigs against the King's power and the American War.

Fox was a man of chivalrous feeling; a scholar with a great love of ancient literature; very popular owing to his charm of manner; a keen sportsman and owner of race-horses. His private life was not strict like Pitt's, and he was devoted to gambling. His father, to his shame, used to give him money to gamble with when a boy. Here are some rhymes on his name referring to his gambling, and also to the fact that he was very stout:

> "If he touches a card or rattles the box,
> Away fly the guineas of this Mr. Fox.
> He delights much in hunting, though fat as an ox;
> I pity the horses of this Mr. Fox."

Fox and Pitt in Office. Fox's Resignation and "Coalition" with Lord North.—When the Whig Marquis of Rockingham succeeded Lord North in 1782, Fox was given high office and made leader of the House of Commons. Pitt was offered a subordinate post worth £5000 a year; but, young and poor as he was, he refused it, saying that he would not join a Ministry unless he had a voice in its councils. In a few months the Marquis of Rockingham died, and was succeeded by another peer who was a Chatham Whig; and he made Pitt Chancellor of the Exchequer. Though the Whigs were now much more united, the old followers of Chatham still held together; and Fox, disliking the new head of the Ministry, resigned, in spite of Pitt's entreaties that he would not break up the Whig party. They never met in private again.

For some time the Ministry were able to struggle on, owing to the hostility between Fox's Whigs and Lord North's Tories, and arranged the treaties with France and the United States. But Fox was ambitious of office, and at last made an alliance or "coalition" with Lord North, and so defeated the Ministry in the spring of 1783. This was a very wrong thing to do, because he had furiously

denounced Lord North during the American War, and said he deserved to be impeached; and he and the Whigs had been champions of liberty against Lord North's support of the royal power. It was the mistake of Fox's life, and, as you will see, he was well punished for it.

George III. hated Fox, and was furious at Lord North's desertion. But after a long struggle and a vain appeal to Pitt, he accepted Fox and Lord North, with the intention of turning them out as soon as possible.

The "Coalition" dismissed. Pitt Prime Minister, 1783. The Election of 1784.—The chance came very soon. Fox brought in a Bill to bring the government of India more under the home Government. It was a very necessary Bill, and on the whole a good one; but it put all the patronage of India in the hands of seven men named in the Bill, all adherents of Fox. There was a great outcry against this, as patronage was used so much as a sort of bribery, and Fox was called the "King of Bengal." The Bill passed the Commons, but at the end of the year it was defeated in the Lords, where George used all his influence against it; whereupon he dismissed the "Coalition Ministry."

This time Pitt accepted office. He was not yet twenty-five. He had against him a large majority led by able statesmen, infuriated by their dismissal, and all his chief colleagues were in the Lords. His first appearance as Prime Minister in the Commons was greeted with laughter; but he remained Prime Minister, except for a short interval, till his death. Amid jeers and sneers at his age, Pitt quietly went on his way. He was continually beaten in the voting, and Fox claimed a dissolution; but Pitt held on. The country was coming round to his side; the majority against him grew smaller and smaller, as North's Tories began to rally to him. At last it was only one. Then Pitt dissolved Parliament. The country gave him a decisive majority, one hundred and sixty of Fox's supporters losing their seats. Fox himself was elected for Westminster, after

a fierce fight in which the King himself spent £8000. The Duchess of Devonshire, a famous beauty of the day, canvassed the electors for Fox, and is said to have won a vote for him with a kiss.

End of George III.'s Attempt to make himself "King."—The general election of 1784 is one of the most famous in our history. It put an end to the faction struggles which are so confusing to the reader, and also to George III.'s interference in Government. There were now only two parties, Whigs under Fox and Tories under Pitt, who, however, always called himself a Whig to the end of his life. With the help of Pitt George III. had finally broken the power of the great Whig houses which ruled the country at his accession; and it was nearly fifty years before the Whigs were really in power again. But his victory put an end to his scheme of making himself "King." For Pitt was a very different man from Lord North; though he always treated George III. with the greatest respect, he directed the government; he was a real "Prime Minister," like Walpole, and his colleagues had to follow him or resign. As there were now only two parties, Tories and Whigs, his party naturally supported him against the Whigs. Bribery of members disappeared, and we hear no more of the King's Friends. Such was the extraordinary power of the young man who became Prime Minister at the age of twenty-four.

Pitt's India Bill; his Finance; his Failure to pass a Reform Bill.—The first thing Pitt had to do was to pass an India Bill, for one was absolutely necessary. His Bill was much the same as Fox's; but the patronage was left to the Company, except that the Crown, that is, the Ministry, had the right of vetoing the appointment of the Governor-General and other high officials. Practically the Ministry appointed the Governor-General; and he ruled India under a Board of Control, which was part of the Ministry. This system lasted till the Company was abolished in 1858, after the great Mutiny.

Pitt had also to put the finances in order, for they were in a bad way owing to the American War. This he did most successfully, by rearranging the taxation and lowering the custom duties on many articles, for in those days the custom duties were so high that there was a great deal of smuggling, especially of tea and brandy; so the country lost much revenue and had to keep up an expensive coastguard force, or "preventive men" as they were called. In one point only Pitt met with a rebuff. He saw that the House of Commons ought to be reformed, by abolishing the "rotten boroughs" and giving members to large towns that had none. He brought in a "Reform Bill"; but the members, even the Whigs, did not like giving up the rotten boroughs, and the Bill was defeated.

The Trial of Warren Hastings.—Two more acts of Pitt's Ministry during these early years are notable, the trial of Warren Hastings, and the beginning of our occupation of Australia, which was a set-off to the loss of the American colonies.

Hastings returned home after the passing of the India Bill; and, great as his services had been, his harsh methods of raising money had roused a strong feeling against him among the Whigs. They demanded that he should be "impeached" before the House of Lords. Pitt, after some hesitation, agreed, and the impeachment was voted by the Commons. The three chief accusers were Fox, the great orator Burke, his friend, and Sheridan, the famous playwright and a leading Whig. The trial opened in 1788 amid great excitement and before a large audience. It lasted a hundred and forty-five days; but, owing to the other business of the House of Lords, it was actually seven years before it ended. Then, when all interest had been lost, Hastings was acquitted. The expenses of the trial had ruined him; but the Company gave him an annuity, and he was able to buy back the home of his family, and end his days there in peace. In course of time his great services were recognised; indeed the Company set up a

statue to him. He died at the age of eighty-six, in 1818.

Hastings was a very great ruler, and saved the British power in India, so that he is rightly called the second founder of our Indian Empire; and the acts for which he was impeached were done not for himself but for his country. But the truth is, that the only way of maintaining our superiority in India is to show ourselves superior to native rulers in our method of governing. This was where Hastings erred; and no governor has since imitated him.

Australia. Early Dutch Exploration.—The north coast of Australia had been seen by explorers in the sixteenth century, and was thought part of the Great Southern Land, the "Terra Australis," shown in the map on page 481 of Volume II. Then the Dutch, in their great days in the seventeenth century, explored its coasts from their East Indian settlements, about seven hundred miles off. But they did not consider it worth occupation; and, when their power fell towards the end of the century, they ceased their explorations. Only a few Dutch names preserve their memory, such as Cape Leeuwin (the Dutch for lion) on the south-west, New Holland, their name for the island, Tasmania, and also New Zealand. Tasmania takes its present name from Tasman, the greatest of these explorers, who discovered it in 1642. He, however, called it Van Diemen's Land, after the governor of the Dutch East Indies. Why the name was changed you will read later. It was Tasman who, on the same voyage, discovered New Zealand; he thought it was the end of South America, which is really five thousand miles away.

Captain Cook's Voyages, 1769-1779. He lands in Australia, 1770.—Later British explorers sighted Australia, but nothing was done till Captain Cook appeared on the scene. Cook was a naval officer. In the Seven Years' War he was employed in surveying and sounding the St. Lawrence, and after that war, in surveying the coasts of British North America. During this work he observed an eclipse

of the sun, of which he wrote an account. This made his name, and in 1769 he was sent out to the Pacific on an astronomical expedition. After carrying out this work, he sailed on south, first to New Zealand, which no one had visited since Tasman, and the next year to New Holland.

Cook spent six months in surveying the coast of New Zealand, and found that there were two islands; he hoisted the British flag, but could not explore the interior owing to the hostility of the natives. In New Holland he landed at a bay which he called Botany Bay, owing to the flowers there, and surveyed the east coast, of which he took possession in the name of Great Britain, calling it New South Wales, because the coast resembled that of Wales. Cook made two other voyages in the Pacific and discovered many islands. In the first he was sent to find out the truth about the supposed Great Southern Continent (mentioned in the second volume). He proved it did not exist by sailing right round the Antarctic Circle. He was the first man to explore the Antarctic region, but could not get far; once he counted ninety-seven icebergs in sight. His last voyage was to find a way from the Pacific to the Atlantic by the north; but he was again stopped by the ice. Three years later, in 1779, he met his death in an affray with the natives of Hawaii, one of the Sandwich Islands, which he had discovered the year before.

Convicts sent to New South Wales, 1787. Foundation of Sydney.—After the loss of the American colonies, the British Government wanted a new place to send convicts to. So they thought of New South Wales; and in May 1787 a squadron of two small warships and nine transports was sent out with seven hundred and fifty men and women convicts, and a detachment of marines as gaolers with their wives and children, and reached their destination the following January. They sailed passed the splendid harbour which Cook had called Port Jackson, because the

entrance was so narrow that they did not see it, and the landing was made at Botany Bay, a few miles to the south. But a sailor going up a hill saw Port Jackson, and the governor moved the settlement there, for Botany Bay was not suitable, owing to the scarcity of fresh water. He called the new settlement Sydney Cove, after Lord Sydney, the minister who had started the project.

The convicts, after serving their sentence, were allowed to marry and settle. Sheep and cattle were introduced

The ships at Botany Bay.

and throve. In two years the settlement was self-supporting, and convicts were regularly sent out. The governors had great difficulties with the convicts, who were brutally treated and often broke out into mutiny, and with the natives. There were as yet no free settlers. The real beginning of Australia came later; but, at any rate, we had secured the country as a British possession. In fact we were only just in time, as a week later two French ships appeared.

Growth of Manufactures and Wealth. Machinery in Spinning and Weaving.—During these early years of the reign of George III. an enormous advance was being made in manufactures, which made Britain by far the greatest trading country in Europe, and by far the richest. This must be mentioned here, as it was her wealth that saved Britain in the troubles ahead of her. It was owing to three things, the invention of machinery in the spinning and weaving trades, the employment of steam-power, and the smelting of iron by coal instead of charcoal.

The way in which cotton, linen, silk and cloth fabrics are made is thus: first, the cotton, flax, silk and wool is twisted into "yarn" on a spinning-wheel; then the yarn is woven into the fabric on a loom, which can be best understood from the picture. Spinning and weaving are of very ancient date; you read in the Bible that the shaft of Goliath's spear was like a weaver's beam. In the old Greek poet Homer, spinning and weaving are the ordinary occupation of women, even of great ladies, who with their hand-maidens made the garments of the household. But the wheel was an invention of the sixteenth century; before that time the twirling was done by the hand. In Britain at that time spinning and weaving were done by cottagers in their homes, the spinning by the women, the weaving by the men.

The next invention was a mechanical shuttle in George II.'s reign, which doubled the amount a weaver could produce. Then, after some unsuccessful attempts, the separate inventions of three men resulted in the spinning-machine at the beginning of George III.'s reign. A weaving-machine followed, and manufactories were set up for spinning and weaving.

The machines were at first worked by water-power, *i.e.* by the water of a stream turning a huge wheel, as you can see in water-mills at the present day; so the manufactories were called "mills." Among the dales of Yorkshire there are plenty of fast-flowing streams; so Yorkshire became

the great cloth-making district of England, instead of Norwich, where Queen Philippa started cloth-weaving in Edward III.'s reign. Other cloth-making districts are the south-west of England and the valleys of the Tweed in Scotland, from which the cloth called tweed takes its name. Cotton-mills sprang up around Manchester, as the cotton was landed from America at Liverpool. The linen trade, of which Belfast is the centre, as flax is grown in Ireland, suffered at first, as it was some years before machinery could be made capable of spinning it. Hand-spinning and weaving still goes on to a certain extent in distant parts of Ireland and the Highlands, where it is said that spinning without the wheel may even now be seen.

Steam Power. James Watt.—After the water-mills came steam-mills; they were the real beginning of the use of steam-power, which has so wonderfully changed the life of the world. Even before the eighteenth century men were trying to use steam as a power, and in Anne's reign a man made a steam-engine, or "fire-engine" as it was called. It was a very feeble engine, for his method of using the steam, which is too complicated to explain here, was a bad one; but it was found useful for pumping water out of coal-mines, and was extensively used for many years.

For half a century other inventors tried their hands without success. Then came James Watt. He was an instrument-maker, and having a small "fire-engine" to repair in 1763, he began to consider how he could improve it. In the next few years he invented several improvements; one, in which the steam was properly used, turned the "fire-engine" into a steam-engine. So James Watt is the real inventor of the steam-engine. In 1777 Watt set up his first pumping-engine, which proved a great success; and soon manufacturers began to demand his engines to work their machinery. In 1781 his partner wrote to him, "The people in Manchester are steam-mill

mad." Thus was steam established as a driving power, but it was nearly fifty years before the railway engine was started, as you will read in a later chapter.

Coal and Iron.—From time immemorial the fuel used in the furnaces for smelting iron ore (that is, separating the iron from the rock) had been charcoal. Iron ore exists in many parts of Britain, but the chief smelting furnaces had been in the great Weald Forest in Sussex. This is one reason why that forest has almost disappeared. By the middle of the eighteenth century, though there were furnaces in other parts of England, so much iron was wanted that two-thirds of the amount had to be imported. Coal had long been dug out for heating purposes, chiefly in Northumberland. Henry III. had granted a licence to dig coal near Newcastle. But this "sea-coal," as it was called from being brought by sea, was forbidden near London in the Middle Ages, as the smoke was considered unhealthy.

However, by the Stuart times coal was generally used for fuel in houses; also, of course, by blacksmiths and in various trades. Attempts were then made to use coal in the form of coke for smelting iron; but complete success was not obtained till the reign of George III., especially when Watt's steam-engine was used for making a strong blast. Great iron-works began to spring up in the neighbourhood of coal-fields; and, as a coke furnace could produce four or five times as much iron as a charcoal one, the amount of iron produced soon rose so rapidly that, instead of being imported, it began to be exported. In 1740 the amount smelted had been only thirteen thousand tons; in 1788 it was over sixty thousand; and it went on nearly doubling every ten years till in 1857 it was a million tons. At the present time it is six millions. In fact, the coal and iron in the soil of our island is the chief source of Britain's prosperity and power. Ireland unfortunately has not enough coal and iron to repay working, and, except for the linen trade, agriculture is her main support. That is why Ireland is so much poorer than England and Scotland.

Improved Methods of Farming.—With this growth of industry the population began to increase far more rapidly. During the whole of the last period, from 1688 to 1760, about seventy years, the population of England and Wales had only increased from 5,000,000 to almost 7,000,000. In the next seventy years it doubled. More food was wanted for the increasing numbers; and a more scientific method of farming was coming in. Now a great deal of the land of England was still "common land," that is, not only the waste land on which the villagers could turn out their animals, but also the tilled land; this was in large open fields, in which each villager had separate strips, sometimes a few, sometimes more.

This was bad for agriculture. A change had already begun by which each man, instead of separate strips, had a single enclosed small farm; and this change now went on more rapidly. Everywhere, instead of large open fields, small fields enclosed by hedges appeared, and the face of the country-side was quite altered. But these small farmers had neither the money nor the skill to farm scientifically; they could not make their farms pay, and had to give them up and become labourers. Then the small farms were joined together into large ones, and let to men who had money to work them properly. Also with this scientific farming much waste land was reclaimed, and made to bear crops profitably. In this way too, much common land was enclosed, and the villagers could no longer turn their animals on to it or collect firewood. So, though good for the country, the change was hard on the poor, who also, as you will read later, suffered from the change in manufactures.

The French Revolution. Its Causes.—Things were going on quietly in Britain under Pitt, and in Europe generally, when a most unexpected convulsion broke out in France. This was the "French Revolution." It not only caused the most terrible war of modern times, but also entirely upset the existing ideas of government and society

throughout Europe. It started the ideas of equality and "democracy," that is, the rule of the people.

Britain at that time was considered "free"; but, as you know, really the upper classes elected the House of Commons. The European nations were not free; their kings had won absolute power when ours lost theirs, and there was still far more of the feudal distinction of classes than in Britain. The nobles, who included every one of noble birth, not merely the actual holders of titles as in Britain, alone shared in the government, and were officers in the army and navy. But in France more than in any country there were clever writers and thinkers, and they often wrote and talked about the origin and principles of government and society. The French looked with envy on free Britain, and especially on the United States, whose freedom they had helped to win, and where all men were held equal, and the "Rights of Man" had been proclaimed.

Louis XVI. of France and Marie Antoinette.—The King of France at this time was Louis XVI., grandson of Louis XV. He was a dull, well-meaning man; he was not at all tyrannical, and ruled as well as he could. His Queen, Marie Antoinette, must be mentioned, owing to her terrible fate. She was the daughter of the great Empress Maria Theresa, and had been married to Louis when he was Dauphin, at the age of fourteen, simply to strengthen the alliance with Austria and France against Prussia. At eighteen she became Queen.

Like her mother, Marie Antoinette was beautiful, high-minded, and courageous. But she came to France an ignorant girl, and never understood or liked the French, especially as the court of Louis XV. was bad compared with her mother's; and the French disliked her and called her the "Austrian." As her husband was uninteresting, in her early married days she found relief in frivolous though innocent amusement; and this was very unfairly turned to her discredit. Such were the King and Queen who had to face the French Revolution.

Money Difficulty of the French Government. Meeting of the States-General, May 1789. Storming of the Bastille and Chateau-Burning.—In spite of the bad system of government, there does not seem to have been any special desire to rebel. Unfortunately the French Government was in difficulties for money, as you have read already, for France had never really recovered from the wars of Louis XIV. and Louis XV. Louis XVI. tried one statesman after another, but they could find no remedy. At last the only course seemed to be to summon the National Assembly, which had not met since James I. was reigning in England. This assembly was called the "States-General," because it consisted of representatives of the three "estates" or classes —nobles, clergy, and commons.

The States-General met at Versailles in May 1789; and with its meeting began the Revolution. For instead of trying to raise money, the "Third Estate," which equalled in numbers the other two and took the lead, began to discuss the whole question of the government. It was joined by some of the nobles and clergy, and declared itself a National Assembly. Louis XVI. at first listened to Marie Antoinette, who was greatly alarmed at events, and other counsellors, and tried to assert his authority. But he soon had to give way. This made the Parisians feel that he could not be trusted; and they rose in defence of the Assembly, and formed themselves into a National Guard.

On July 19, a day still kept in France, the National Guard stormed the Bastille, the royal castle and prison in Paris. This was followed by risings of peasants, who burnt the "chateaux," or country houses, of the nobles in many places. There was great alarm in the upper classes, and many nobles and one of the King's brothers fled across the Rhine to Germany. The only troops at Paris whom Louis could trust were a few Swiss Guards. He was thinking of summoning more troops; but the Paris mob forced him to leave Versailles and live in the

Tuileries, his palace in Paris, where he was in the power of the Parisians. The National Assembly now also moved to Paris.

Attempted Flight of Louis XVI., 1791.—Then for a time there was a lull. The Assembly had abolished the old feudal customs, seized the property of the Church to provide money, and was making a new form of government,

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SIEGE DE LA BASTILLE
LES VICTIMES DU DESPOTISME RETIRÉS L'ENFER
CE PLOMB SCELLA LES BASTILLES QUI ENCHAINOIENT
DÉDIÉ AUX ÉLECTEURS DE 1789
PAR LOYE PATRIOTE LORS DE LA RENDITION
DE SON CMPTE A LA NATION
PREMIER

Medal celebrating the taking of the Bastille.
Translation of the inscription round the edge:—
"This lead sealed the fetters which chained the victims of despotism (and now) recalls the day of the winning of liberty in the year One." The Republicans set up a new calendar, dating from the capture of the Bastille; it was given up by Napoleon.

more like the British. Louis XVI. got on with the new state of things as well as he could, but Marie Antoinette, in her alarm, was already appealing to her brother, the Emperor, for protection. At last, in June 1791, she persuaded Louis to escape with his sister, herself, and her two children, the little Dauphin and a princess. They got safely out of Paris; but just before they reached the

The Royal Family stopped in their flight to Varennes.

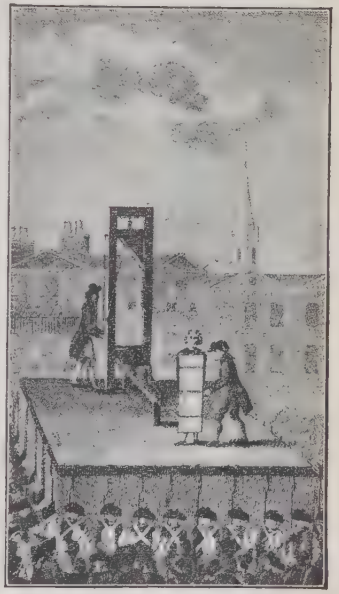
German frontier, they were recognised, stopped, and ignominiously brought back.

Interference of Austria and Prussia. France declares War, 1792. The "September Massacres" and Proclamation of the Republic.—After this Louis's position was hopeless. The new constitution was indeed started with a great national ceremony, but it did not satisfy the people; and a Republican party began to arise. The King of Prussia, nephew of Frederick the Great, and the Emperor now dropped their old quarrel, and made an alliance to help the French monarchy, for they were afraid that the Revolution might spread to their own kingdoms. There were by this time a large number of emigrants in Germany, including both Louis XVI.'s brothers, eager for an attack on France.

This was the last blow to the French monarchy. France was furious, and declared war in the spring of 1792. But the Revolution had ruined the old army, and the new troops were easily beaten in an attack on the Austrian Netherlands, or Belgium, as they were now called. A Prussian army was advancing on Paris from the Rhine, and the commander issued a most insulting proclamation. Alarm and fury seized the French; a cry of treachery was raised against the royal family and all nobles; and a party of extreme republicans, called Jacobins, under a leader called Robespierre, began to get the upper hand. In August the Paris mob stormed the Tuileries, where they killed the Swiss Guards and forced the Assembly to depose Louis, who was imprisoned with his family. Numbers of nobles and others, men and women, were flung into prison as suspects. The continued advance of the Prussians caused another outbreak in Paris. The mob dragged the suspects out of the prisons and savagely murdered them, to the number of two thousand. These horrors lasted three days, and are called the "September Massacres."

By this time the tide of war turned. The armies had been reinforced by a large levy of volunteers. The

Prussians, weakened by disease, retreated after a slight engagement; and the French even took some towns on the Rhine. The Austrians, who had wasted their time in sieges, were defeated, and the French overran Belgium. In the south they attacked and seized Savoy, then part of the dominions of the King of Sardinia, who ruled on both sides of the Alps, with his capital at Turin. Excited with these successes, the French proclaimed an alliance with all peoples against tyrants.



The Guillotine. From an English broadsheet on the execution of Louis XVI.

Execution of Louis XVI., January 1793.—At the beginning of 1793 the Jacobins, who were in the majority in the Assembly, brought Louis XVI. to trial, and condemned him as a traitor to his country. Such was the result of the attempt of Austria and Prussia to help him. He was executed on January 21 by the "guillotine," a machine recently invented, which did the work of the headsman's axe in a quicker and surer manner. Like Charles I., Louis XVI. met his death with calm bravery.

SUMMARY.

Pitt (the younger) and Fox—Their separation in politics at the time of the Peace—Disgraceful coalition of Fox and Lord North—Their dismissal; Pitt made Prime Minister—General Election of 1784; triumph of Pitt; his long Tory Ministry; end of George III.'s attempt to rule.

Pitt's policy; his failure to carry Reform—Trial of Warren Hastings—Australia; early Dutch explorers—Captain Cook's voyages—He lands in New South Wales and hoists the British flag—Convicts sent to New South Wales.

Growth of manufactures owing to invention of machinery and steam-power—Spinning and weaving mills—James Watt and the steam-engine—Coal and iron—Improved farming.

Causes of the French Revolution—Louis XVI. and Marie Antoinette—Meeting of States-General; storming of the Bastille and Chateau-burning—Attempted flight of the royal family two years later—War with Austria and Prussia—Storming of the Tuileries; the September Massacres, and Proclamation of the Republic—Execution of Louis XVI.

DATES.

1770. Cook lands in New South Wales.
1787. Convicts sent to New South Wales.
1789. Meeting of States-General in France.
1793. (January). Execution of Louis XVI.

CHAPTER LIV

George III., 1760-1820

(III)

The Revolutionary War. Pitt and Nelson

Britain and the French Revolution.—We must now return to our own history. The meeting of the States-General had naturally roused great interest in Britain. But when the troubles began, opinions were greatly divided. Fox, as the champion of liberty, was enthusiastic for the Revolution, and declared the taking of the Bastille the greatest event in all history; and most of his followers agreed with him. But his colleague, the eloquent Irishman Edmund Burke, was shocked by it, and foretold that worse would follow. Two years later, in a memorable scene in the House of Commons, Burke in a speech declared that difference of their opinions put an end to their friendship. "There is no end of friends," whispered the generous-hearted Fox, who sat beside him. "There is a loss of friends," insisted Burke; "I know the price of my conduct." When Fox rose to reply, tears at first prevented him speaking, and the House was deeply moved.

Pitt, who had to decide on the nation's policy, was anxiously watching events without taking sides; his one object was to keep the country out of war. As events progressed in France, the revolutionary opinions began to spread in Britain among the lower orders, who had no vote. The upper classes became alarmed; Fox's followers began to drop off; and in the next few years some repressive laws were passed.

In Ireland, too, the French Revolution excited hopes. A society called the United Irishmen was formed to throw off the British yoke with French aid. It was mainly Catholic, but contained some Protestants; and its leader was a Protestant barrister called Wolfe Tone.

War with France, 1793.—The execution of the King was naturally a great shock to the British. The French were already interfering with Holland; so Pitt withdrew our ambassador from Paris, and in February 1793 the French declared war on Britain and Holland. Almost at once Spain, and the little kingdoms of Portugal and Naples, and even the Pope also, joined in the war, though with little effect. Pitt had now to give up all his plans for the improvement of the country, and fight France abroad and the revolution at home. The revolution made Pitt a Tory; it also shattered the Whigs. Some of them joined the Ministry, but Fox and the few who stood by him protested energetically against the war.

As usual, Britain suffered from the weakness of the army, which, as you have read, was always kept small owing to the nation's dislike of a standing army. Only 20,000 could be sent to the assistance of the Austrians in Belgium. They were under George III.'s second son, the Duke of York, who was not a great general; and they were joined by the Dutch under the Prince of Orange. But at sea we were very powerful, as the French navy had suffered, like the army, from the loss of its best officers. As in the Seven Years' War, our two main fleets watched Brest and Toulon. The admirals were Lord Howe and Lord Hood, another veteran of the American War, who commanded the Mediterranean fleet. The great Rodney had just died.

Thus began the "Great War," as it is sometimes called, which was finally ended by the battle of Waterloo, twenty-two years after. Really, as you will see, it consisted of two wars, separated by a very short interval of peace.

Difficulties of the Jacobins. The Terror.—When the British joined the Austrians in Belgium, the revolutionary

army was again driven out. At the same time there was a royalist rising in the north-west of France, where the Bretons were attached to the throne and the Church. It was known as the war of "La Vendée," the district where most of the fighting was. It lasted for some time, and was fought with great savagery on both sides. There were also risings in the great cities of the south, which hated the Jacobins. At Toulon the British fleet aided the rebels against the besieging army. But a young artillery officer erected a battery in a position that forced the British to leave the harbour, after first setting fire to the French warships. He was Napoleon Bonaparte, a native of Corsica, which had been French for a quarter of a century. This exploit was the beginning of his wonderful career.

The defeat in Belgium and the risings had the same effect on the French as the invasion of the year before. The suppression of the risings was followed by wholesale executions of men, women, and even children, of the most horrible kind. In Paris the Jacobins imprisoned their opponents, and then began to guillotine them after very summary trials. This is known as the "Reign of Terror." It began with the execution of the unhappy Marie Antoinette. Meanly clad, her hair turned white by her troubles, though she was only thirty-eight, she faced her accusers, and met her death as firmly as her husband. Every day batches of prisoners were drawn in carts to the place of execution, which was surrounded by a delighted crowd of the Paris mob. It was no longer nobles only who suffered, numbers of men who had worked zealously for the Republic now suffered as opponents of the Jacobins. Louis XVI.'s sister followed the Queen to the guillotine. The poor little Dauphin was cruelly treated, and died soon after; the Princess survived and was afterwards released, but her terrible experiences saddened the rest of her life.

All this time the Jacobin leaders were most energetic and successful in the war. An enormous levy of men was made; and just at the time of Marie Antoinette's execution

a defeat was inflicted on the Austrians, and the tide began to turn. The Terror went on till the summer of 1794. There was then no danger of invasion, and Robespierre was beginning to guillotine his personal opponents. So the Assembly turned on him; he was guillotined in his turn, and the Terror came to an end, to the great joy of the upper-class Parisians. Gaiety and amusement were now the order of the day, and balls were actually held to which no one was admitted who had not lost a relation by the guillotine. The next year a new government was set up, of five "Directors," elected for five years.

Triumph of the Revolutionary Armies. Spain and Prussia make Peace. The Allies driven from Holland.—By the end of 1794 France was everywhere victorious. The Austrians were driven from the Netherlands, and the Duke of York retreated to Holland. The reason of the French success was that the revolutionary soldiers, now several hundred thousand strong, called from their homes to defend their country, full of enthusiasm and ready to endure all hardships, with able young generals, made war in a very different fashion to the old-fashioned generals at the head of the standing armies. Spain was beaten and made peace, as did Prussia. She was more interested in dividing up Poland with Russia. The poor Poles had fallen on evil days. Already slices of their territory had been taken from them by Prussia, Russia, and Austria. Now they lost their country altogether, though they fought hard for it.

In the winter, when the rivers and canals were frozen, the French poured into Holland, and a regiment of cavalry captured the Dutch fleet. The British force returned home unsuccessful, but without having suffered any serious defeat. The Prince of Orange fled to our shores; and Holland was made a republic in alliance with France, which had already annexed Belgium. The only allies Pitt had left were Austria and "Sardinia," the little state in north-west Italy, ruled by the house of Savoy.

The War at Sea. Battle of the First of June, 1794.—At sea things went very differently. In the summer of 1794, towards the end of the "Terror," the Brest fleet came out to save a fleet of merchant ships coming from the United States. This it did, but it had to fight our Channel fleet on June 1. Lord Howe, knowing that the French navy was not what it had been, bore down on the enemy without any manœuvring, and after a hard-fought battle captured six ships and sunk one. This was the only battle fought by the Brest fleet during the war, and was known as the battle of the First of June.

The Mediterranean fleet had little to do for some time after the siege of Toulon, owing to the damage done to the French warships there. It was mainly occupied in helping the Austrians in the land war along the Riviera coast and taking Corsica from the French. In this fleet Nelson commanded a small battleship called the *Agamemnon*.

Nelson's Early Days.—Horatio Nelson, the hero of this war, was the son of a Norfolk clergyman, and was born in 1758, the year before Pitt. As a boy he was puny and delicate, but fearless, and with a strong sense of duty, as stories of his boyhood show. His father was poor; and his uncle, Captain Suckling, a naval officer, offered to provide for one of the boys. Captains of ships still used to take boys to be trained as officers, though there was also a school for them on shore. When Horatio was twelve, news came that his uncle was given a ship, so he asked his father to let him go with him. "What," wrote his uncle, "has poor Horatio done, who is so weak, that he should want to rough it at sea? But let him come; a cannon-ball may knock off his head, and then he will be provided for." So to sea Nelson went, and stood the roughness, though he was always slight and his health was never good.

When fifteen he took part in an Arctic expedition of two ships, which did not get very far. This voyage is famous

for the bear story. Then he went out to the Indian station and became a midshipman; but the climate made him ill and he came back. At eighteen Nelson passed his lieutenant's examination. His uncle was one of the examiners, but he would not say that Nelson was his nephew till he had passed successfully. He was appointed to a frigate going out to the West Indies for the American War. He was in no great battles, but he distinguished himself so much by his zeal in his various duties that he was rapidly promoted, and by twenty-one was in command of a frigate. Nelson remained in the West Indies for a few years after the peace, often suffering greatly in health. Then for five years he was on half-pay, living at his father's rectory. He was restless and thinking of retiring from the navy, when the French war gave him a new chance.

Captain Nelson in the Mediterranean Fleet.—Admiral Hood had known Nelson's merits in the West Indies, and employed him on various duties. His chief service was at the conquest of Corsica. Two towns were besieged and taken, and Nelson took a leading part in the sieges, and landed in command of the sailors who supported the troops. In the second siege he lost the sight of his right eye from the sand knocked up by a cannon-ball, which narrowly missed his head.

As a commander Nelson was beloved by his officers and men, and he always said that he had the best officers and men in the fleet. But his superiors found him difficult to manage, unless they won his respect, as Hood did, and afterwards Sir John Jervis. For Nelson, with his frail body and health and his active mind, was all "nerves." Kind and sympathetic to others, and always ready to praise them, he was himself eager for praise and recognition, and very ready to take offence if he thought himself slighted.

He had closely studied his profession, and his principle which won him his success was always to strike as hard as possible when there was a chance, and not to rest content till the utmost had been done. An instance of this occurred

in 1795, when the Toulon squadron at last put to sea. Lord Hood had then been succeeded by a commonplace admiral; he had two slight actions with the French, but each time let them escape back to port. In the first, two ships were taken and one burnt. The captures were mainly owing to the activity of Nelson; and after the action he actually went on board the flag-ship, and urged the admiral to pursue the French. The reply was, "We must be content; we have done very well." This was exactly contrary to Nelson's principle; and had the Toulon fleet been pursued and crushed, as Nelson thought was possible, much future trouble would have been saved.

Bonaparte's great Italian Victories, 1796.—The year 1796 is famous for the first of Bonaparte's victorious campaigns. In the autumn of 1795 there had been an outbreak of the Paris mob against the Directory; and Bonaparte, who was then unemployed, was given the duty of suppressing it. This he did most thoroughly, by firing on the mob with cannons. As a reward he was made a general, and given the command of the army of Italy, which was fighting the Sardinians and Austrians on the Italian Riviera. He at once showed his astounding military genius. Striking quick and hard, he forced the Sardinians to make peace, beat one Austrian army after another, and by the end of the year drove the Austrians right out of northern Italy.

Spain joins France. Threatened Invasion of Ireland, 1796. Battle of Cape St. Vincent, 1797.—The same summer, Spain, which had already made peace, was induced by France to join her in the war. Sir John Jervis, a very able admiral, who in his early days had been with Wolfe at Quebec, now commanded in the Mediterranean. He decided to retire from it altogether to Gibraltar, so Corsica was given up, and Nelson was sent to withdraw the troops and stores.

The French, having now two allied fleets, the Dutch and Spanish, were planning an invasion of England; so

the time was very critical. In December 1796 an attempt was actually made to land in Ireland in support of the United Irishmen, at the request of Wolfe Tone, who went to Paris.

> 'The French are on the sea ;
> And Ireland will be free
> From the Shannon to the sea'

is a rebel song of the day. A fleet with 20,000 soldiers got out of Brest, which was not closely watched. Fortunately it was scattered by a storm. The general never reached Ireland ; and such ships as did, after waiting for him in vain, returned without landing troops.

In February 1797 the Spanish fleet, numbering twenty seven ships, started from Cadiz to join the French at Brest. Jervis was waiting for it off Cape St. Vincent. He had only fifteen ships, for he had lost several by various accidents ; but he knew that the Spaniards, though brave, were inefficient.

With his ships in one single column, he sailed between the Spaniards, who were in two widely separated groups. Then he turned round to attack the larger group in rear. If all his ships had followed the leaders, the Spaniards would have had time to escape. Nelson, who was near the rear, seeing this, left the column without any orders, and threw himself in front of the Spaniards ; and the rear ship followed him. His ship suffered terribly from the numbers that surrounded her, and was dismasted. The leading ships began to come up ; several of the Spaniards were disabled, and two were entangled together. Nelson drove his ship against them and took the first by boarding, he himself being among the boarders. The other, the flag-ship of the vice-admiral, then surrendered. There is a well-known picture of Nelson receiving the swords of the officers on her deck.

Four ships in all were taken ; and the rest of the Spaniards fled back to Cadiz, and were of no more help to the French. Jervis was made Earl St. Vincent for the

victory; and Nelson, who had made the victory decisive, was made a Knight of the Bath. At this time he also became a rear-admiral.

The Mutinies at Spithead and the Nore.—The battle of St. Vincent greatly improved the British position. But more troubles were ahead. Bonaparte advanced in the spring right into Austria; and the Emperor agreed to negotiate. Then in May came mutinies in the fleet. The first was at Spithead, in the Channel fleet. It was simply for increased pay, for their pay was very poor. The admiral was about to sail for Brest, when the men refused to obey orders. The Government granted their demands, and promised that there should be no punishment, so this mutiny did not last long.

But the example was taken up by the guard-ships at the Nore, at the mouth of the Thames. There the mutiny was much more dangerous. A man named Parker was the ringleader; he was an educated man; had been a midshipman, but had been dismissed for insubordination. Recently being imprisoned for debt, he had joined the navy as a common sailor. Parker spread revolutionary ideas among the men; and one of their demands was that they should have a voice in the appointment of their officers. The mutineers seized the ships, hoisted the red flag, but did no violence to the officers. The Government offered free pardon if they submitted at once, but in vain; whereupon they sent troops to Chatham. Fresh ships arriving at the Nore were forced to hoist the red flag against their will; and the mutiny even spread to the fleet watching the Dutch. But the commander, Admiral Duncan, by his personal power, kept his own crew loyal; and then he asked his captains about their ships. Only one said that he saw signs of mutiny. Duncan went on board the ship, and mustered the crew. One man was insolent, and Duncan, who was a man of great stature and strength, seized him and held him over the ship's side. The men cheered the admiral, and remained loyal. But in a day

or two all the other ships mutinied and went off to the Nore. Duncan declared that if the Dutch came out he would fight them with his two. But the Dutch did not come out. They did not know about the mutiny; and Duncan kept up appearances by signalling to an imaginary fleet out of sight of the shore.

This desertion in face of the enemy turned every one against the mutineers; and the mutineers themselves began to desert Parker. The Government were preparing an attack when they submitted, and surrendered Parker, who was hanged with twenty others. The mutiny had lasted over a month.

When reinforcements went out to Lord St. Vincent, there was danger that they might bring disaffection. But he was a stern disciplinarian, though he took care that the men were well treated. A few insubordinate men were tried and promptly hanged, and the trouble was at an end. It must be remembered that, owing to the difficulty of getting men in those days, the crews were completed not only with pressed men, but also with criminals from prisons, who would not have much loyalty. Discipline had to be harsh, and flogging was a common punishment. Nelson himself considered the Spithead mutineers had a grievance. "The Government treat us all badly," he said. But the Nore mutineers were, he said, "scoundrels," and he considered Lord St. Vincent's severity quite right.

Nelson's Failure at Santa Cruz. Battle of Camperdown against the Dutch.—This summer Nelson met with his first failure. It was thought the Spanish plate fleet was at Santa Cruz, the port in the Madeira Islands which Blake had attacked a hundred and fifty years before, and Nelson suggested an attack on it. St. Vincent sent him with a small squadron, but he could not get the soldiers he wanted from Gibraltar. The result was that the attack, which was made at night in boats, was repulsed; and Nelson in trying to land was shot through the right shoulder. His arm was amputated, and he returned to England, and went to

Bath to recover from the effects. In October the Dutch put to sea, and Duncan engaged them off the village of Camperdown. It was the fiercest fight of the war, for the Dutch fought with all their old obstinacy, and the fleets were about equal. Duncan won a complete victory, and took more than half the Dutch fleet—eleven ships—but they were so battered as to be useless. As the mutineers had fought so well, a general pardon was proclaimed in honour of the victory. When Nelson heard of the battle, he exclaimed, "I would give my other arm to be with Duncan at this moment."

Thus the troubled year ended successfully for Britain; but she was left facing France alone, for Austria made peace. She had to give up Belgium to France; but France gave her Venice, which Bonaparte had occupied. This was a disgraceful thing for France to do, for the Republic began the war by declaring itself the foe of all oppressors, and now it was putting a foreign yoke on a free state.

1798. The French Expedition to Egypt. Nelson, in command of a Squadron, misses the French Fleet.—Though the defeat of the Spaniards and Dutch made Britain safe from invasion, the plan was not dropped; and when Bonaparte returned to Paris, the Directory appointed him commander of the army of invasion. But he preferred an expedition to Egypt, which was nominally under the Sultan of Turkey. For this the way seemed clear, as the British fleet was still outside the Mediterranean. By the conquest of Egypt, Bonaparte said afterwards he hoped to be able to attack the British in India.

Early in 1798 the British Government heard of preparations for an expedition at Toulon; its object, of course, they did not know. They told Lord St. Vincent to watch Toulon, for which purpose reinforcements would be sent him. Nelson, who had rejoined, was given this duty with a small squadron, greatly to the annoyance of two senior officers, who protested to the Admiralty. But the Admiralty had advised St. Vincent to send him, owing to

his "acquaintance with that part of the world, as well as his activity and disposition." Such was Nelson's reputation at this time.

As the reinforcements had not arrived, Nelson had only three line-of-battle ships, four frigates and a sloop. Hardly had he reached the Gulf of Lyons when the expedition started, consisting of thirteen line-of-battle ships, frigates and transports, carrying 35,000 soldiers. Before Nelson discovered this, a gale arose which scattered his squadron and dismasted his ship. However, he was found and towed to a harbour in Sardinia, where the ships were repaired in the extraordinary time of four days. Unfortunately the frigates missed him, and, after searching for him for some time, went back to the main fleet. So Nelson was left with no scouts, except one little sloop. What the loss meant to him you will see. When he started again, he heard that the expedition had gone south. It had sailed down the east of Corsica and Sardinia, and so had been protected from the gale, which was from the north-west.

Nelson was now joined by more battle-ships, and, after waiting in vain for the frigates, he started in pursuit. He heard that the French had gone to Malta, which belonged to the Knights of St. John, the only one of the old Crusading orders which still survived. Nearing Malta, he heard that it had surrendered a week before. Suspecting that Egypt might be Bonaparte's object, Nelson crowded on all sail for Alexandria and reached it in six days, on June 28. To his disappointment no French were there, and nothing had been heard of them. Bonaparte had left Malta three days before Nelson, but with his slow-sailing transports had not yet arrived. One night the fleets had been very near each other. Had Nelson had frigates scouting, he would certainly have found the French, and it would have been all over with Bonaparte. Alarmed now for Sicily, Nelson started back again; and, with the wind against him, did not reach it till July the 19th.

Three days after Nelson left Alexandria, Bonaparte arrived there, disembarked his troops, and marched inland.

Battle of the Nile, August 1, 1798.—Finding Sicily safe, Nelson started eastwards again, got news of the French, and on the afternoon of August 1, to his great relief, sighted the fleet moored in Aboukir Bay, a little east of Alexandria. The French admiral had moored his fleet in what he thought was a strong position, for its flanks were protected by sandbanks. Nelson had expected to find it in some such position, and had already arranged his plan of attack with his captains, so there was no delay. The ships formed into a single column, rounded a projecting sandbank, the leading ship taking soundings, and fell upon the French van. Some ships anchored inside, for the leading ship found room to pass the first French ship, and some outside. Thus the French van was overwhelmed by superior numbers; this was Nelson's plan. The battle began about half-past six, when it was already dark. About nine o'clock the French flag-ship, the only three-decker in the battle, which was in the centre, caught fire, and a little before ten she blew up with a terrific explosion, which heightened the horrors of the night battle. Nelson, who had been wounded by a piece of iron which cut his forehead, had gone below. He came up on deck, and ordered the only sound boat on his ship to be lowered to save such lives as was possible.

After a pause the battle began again, and went on all night. The next morning it was found that six French ships had surrendered; two had gone ashore, and one was drifting about dismasted. The three last ships, which had hardly been in the fight at all, cut their cables and made off; one went ashore and was burnt by her crew, the other two escaped with two frigates. Only one British ship was in a condition to pursue, and Nelson recalled her, as the odds were too great.

The battle of the Nile, as it was called, was the most complete naval victory won up to that time. It was a terrible blow to France, as it left Bonaparte and his army

Battle of the Nile.

stranded in Egypt. Nelson's fame rang through Europe, and he was rewarded by the Government with the title of Lord Nelson of the Nile. Being only a rear-admiral, he was not made an earl like St. Vincent, at which he was much hurt.

Second Coalition against France. Bonaparte made First Consul, 1799. Defeat of the Austrians. Surrender of Malta, 1800.—Owing to the victory, Pitt was able to draw Austria and Russia into alliance again; but Prussia selfishly held aloof, for which you will find that she was terribly punished later. Though Pitt was not successful as a war minister, like his father, he fought the war with unwavering determination, ever working to keep up the European coalition, and supporting our allies with money, as his father had done. The French saw in Pitt their great enemy; "Pitt's gold" was to them the cause of all their troubles. In the absence of Bonaparte, the French were defeated in Germany by the Austrians, in the north of Italy by the Austrians and Russians, but beat the Russians back from Switzerland.

Bonaparte himself, after several easy victories in Egypt, had invaded Syria. He was besieging Acre, famous in the old Crusades but now a place of little strength, when Sir Sydney Smith, who commanded the British squadron off Egypt, landed sailors and cannons, and beat Bonaparte off. He now returned to Egypt, won another victory there, then, leaving his army behind, sailed in a frigate for France, and, by a second piece of luck, escaped the British cruisers. He was anxious to get back because the French were tired of the Directory, owing to its feeble rule and the defeats.

Bonaparte had a triumphant reception for his victories, and, feeling that his time had come, he turned out the Directory with his soldiers, and set up a new government of three "Consuls" (a title taken from ancient Rome). He of course was the first Consul, with all the real power. The French regarded Bonaparte as the only man who could

restore real government, and from this time he really ruled France. He was in France what Cromwell had been in England. Such was the end of the French Revolution.

The Tsar had already made peace, because he thought the Austrians had not properly supported him in Switzerland. In 1800 Bonaparte drove the Austrians out of Italy, by unexpectedly crossing the Alps while the Austrians were besieging Genoa and winning the decisive battle of Marengo. Beaten also in Germany at Hohenlinden, the Austrians made peace, and a second time Britain was left facing France.

The same year Malta, which Nelson had been blockading since the battle of the Nile, surrendered. Near the end of the siege, the two ships that had escaped from the battle were captured, one by Nelson himself. He was greatly delighted, as it made his victory complete.

Victory of Copenhagen, April 1801. Unsuccessful Attack on the Boulogne Flotilla.—As in the War of American Independence, the neutral powers were annoyed at the British seizing and searching their ships; and Bonaparte took advantage of this to persuade Russia, Sweden, and Denmark to form a second "Armed Neutrality" against Britain. Fearing that the fleets of these powers might help France, the Ministry sent a fleet to the Baltic under Admiral Sir Hyde Parker. Lord Nelson, who had returned from the Mediterranean on the ground of ill-health, but really because he disliked St. Vincent's successor, was appointed second-in-command of the Baltic fleet, but he really planned and directed the fighting.

The first operation was an attack on Copenhagen. The Danes had moored their men-of-war in front of the city, with floating batteries and gunboats, and there were strong land batteries. The ships were few in number, but the chief protection was the numerous sandbanks. However, Nelson worked out his scheme, to which Sir Hyde Parker agreed. He kept six ships as a reserve, and gave Nelson twelve and frigates for the attack. Two ships

Admiral Lord Nelson.
After the battle of the Nile Nelson used to brush his hair down on his forehead to conceal the scar of his wound.
The scenery is quite imaginary; Nelson was never on the shore during a naval engagement.

went aground, which rather upset Nelson's plan, and the fighting was very hot. Parker, seeing this, hoisted the signal to retire, but Nelson disregarded it. Turning to his captain he said jestingly, "You know, I have a right to be blind sometimes"; and putting his telescope to his blind eye he said, "I really do not see the signal."

In the end the Danish defence was overcome, and Denmark had to submit. There was no more fighting, and Russia and Sweden gave up the Armed Neutrality. It was only the Tsar's admiration for Bonaparte that had turned Russia against us. He was really mad, and was at this time assassinated.

On his return, Nelson met with his second failure. France was still threatening invasion, and a large number of armed boats had been collected at Boulogne. Earl St. Vincent, who was at the Admiralty, laughed at the danger, and said only old women believed in it. But the Government put Nelson in command against the Boulogne flotilla; and he planned a boat attack by night in August, but it was not well managed, and was beaten off. Nelson said it was his fault for not leading the attack in person.

The French defeated in Egypt Treaty of Amiens.—However, there was no invasion, for the war was drawing to a close. The position of the French army in Egypt had given us a chance of striking a blow on land. In March an army of 20,000 men was sent to Egypt. It landed near Alexandria in spite of the French resistance, and soon after won a complete victory, in which, however, the general, Sir Ralph Abercromby, was killed. After holding out for some time, the French surrendered in August, on condition of being conveyed back to France.

Negotiations for peace now began, and in the spring of 1802 a treaty was signed at Amiens. Britain had taken many islands from France, and also the Cape of Good Hope and Ceylon from Holland, when she was forced to join in the war. These were all given up, except Ceylon and the island of Trinidad, and Malta was to be given back to

the Knights of St. John. Also, it was agreed that George III. should drop the title of King of France, which our sovereigns had absurdly kept up ever since the loss of France in Henry VI.'s reign; so the French lilies disappeared from the royal arms. With the Treaty of Amiens ended the first part of our long war with France. It is generally known as the "Revolutionary War."

Arms borne by George III. and his successors from 1802 till 1837. In the centre are the Arms of Hanover.

Ireland; the Catholic Claims; the Rebellion of 1798.—You may be surprised to think that Pitt made peace. But he was no longer Prime Minister. The Irish trouble had caused his resignation. To explain this we must go back a few years. Not only were the revolutionaries in Ireland trying to free themselves with French help, but the Roman Catholics were demanding political rights. Against them the loyal Protestants of the north formed societies, and they called themselves "Orangemen," in memory of the Protestant champion, William of Orange, and had many conflicts with the Catholics. The Irish Parliament passed a Bill giving the vote to the Catholics, but a second Bill, allowing them to be members of Parliament, was defeated. The Catholics were bitterly disappointed, and began to arm for a rebellion with French help. This was the cause of the unsuccessful French expedition in 1796, when Britain was in such danger. The Government now used the Protestant Irish yeomanry to search for arms, who seized thousands of muskets and pikes, and some cannons, but treated the people very cruelly. After the battles of Cape St. Vincent and Camperdown, the rebels, despairing of French aid, determined to

rise even without it. The rising was to take place in May 1798. The Government, aware of what was going on, arrested the leaders of the United Irishmen, and their head, Lord Edward Fitzgerald, son of the Earl of Leinster, of the famous old Norman Geraldine family, was shot while resisting arrest, and died in prison.

Though the leaders were gone, the rising took place; but the ill-armed peasants could do little, and it was easily suppressed, except in Wexford. There the rebels had a camp on a hill called Vinegar Hill, where many Protestant prisoners were slain. As in the old Irish wars, there were angry passions and brutal cruelty on both sides. At last, in June, Vinegar Hill was stormed, and the rebellion mercilessly stamped out. These are the events referred to in the Irish rebel song, the "Wearing of the Green."

"'Tis the most distressful country that ever yet was seen,
For they 're hanging men and women for the wearing of the green."

After all was over, the French succeeded in sending some help. A small force of a thousand men landed in the north-west, and beat a large force of militia. But it was soon surrounded by enormously superior forces, and obliged to surrender. A larger force followed, but was driven back by a British squadron, and one ship was captured. Wolfe Tone, unluckily for him, was on board. He was tried, and condemned to be hanged as a traitor. He begged in vain to be shot, on the ground that he was now a French officer; but, to escape hanging, he killed himself in prison.

The Union with Ireland, 1800.—Pitt saw that the only way to give peace to Ireland was to give the Catholics their rights; but the danger was that, being in a majority in Ireland, they would in their turn oppress the Protestants; so he determined first to join the Irish and British Parliaments, then neither side could oppress the other. The Union was carried through the Irish Parliament, against the opposition of Grattan, by wholesale bribing and giving of titles. Ireland was to send a hundred members to the

House of Commons, twenty-eight elected peers, and four bishops to the House of Lords. The first Parliament of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, as it was now called, met in January 1801. Pitt had openly promised relief to the Catholics, but he found George III. obstinately set against it. He said he would refuse his consent because of the Coronation Oath, in which he had promised to maintain the Protestant religion. So Pitt resigned; and his place was taken by the Speaker, Addington, a feeble statesman.

SUMMARY.

Fear of revolution in Britain; quarrel of Fox and Burke; Pitt tries to keep out of war—War with France after the execution of the King—Ill-success of the French, and risings against the Jacobin rule—Bonaparte at Toulon—The Terror; execution of Marie Antoinette—Final triumph of the French, and end of the Terror.

Battle of the First of June—Nelson commands a ship in the Mediterranean; his early life and character—Bonaparte's victories in Italy; Austria makes peace—Spain joins France; threats of invasion—Battle of St. Vincent—Mutinies of the navy—Nelson's failure at Santa Cruz—Battle of Camperdown.

Bonaparte's expedition to Egypt—His escape from Nelson—Battle of the Nile—Austria and Russia attack France; Bonaparte's victories in Egypt—He returns to France and is made First Consul—Defeat of the Austrians, who make peace—The Armed Neutrality; battle of Copenhagen—The French driven from Egypt—Peace of Amiens.

Ireland—Discontent of the Catholics—Rebellion of 1798—Union with England; resignation of Pitt, because George III. opposed the admission of Catholics to Parliament.

DATES.

1794. Battle of First of June.
1797. Battle of Cape St. Vincent.
1798. Battle of the Nile. Irish Rebellion.
1800. Union with Ireland.
1801. Battle of Copenhagen.

} **Revolutionary War, 1793-1802.**

CHAPTER LV

George III., 1760-1820

(IV)

The Napoleonic War. Trafalgar

War breaks out again, 1803.—The Peace only lasted a year, for disputes soon began with Bonaparte. The chief one was about Malta; the British Ministry was afraid that if they gave up Malta, Bonaparte would seize it. Various arrangements were suggested, but to no purpose. At last Bonaparte lost his temper with the British ambassador, and at a public reception declared that Britain was forcing him into a war. In May 1803 the war began again, and only ended with his downfall.

Bonaparte at once seized Hanover, which was powerless to resist; but the Hanoverians remained loyal, and many of them were enrolled in a "German Legion," and did splendid service in the war.

Threatened Invasion. The Camp at Boulogne. British Preparations.—Bonaparte's plan was to land an invading army on the south coast and capture London. The Boulogne Camp was re-established, and immense preparations were begun to collect vessels. Britain felt the danger this time to be real, for Bonaparte had 150,000 veteran troops who would be hard to beat. The fleet took up its old stations. Lord Nelson was given the Mediterranean command to watch the Toulon fleet; Admiral Cornwallis, son of Lord Cornwallis of the American War, commanded the Channel fleet off Brest, which he blockaded much

closer than before. A smaller squadron of his fleet also watched Rochefort in the Bay of Biscay. Finally there was the reserve fleet, with many frigates watching Boulogne and the neighbourhood.

Great preparations were also made on land. Besides the regular troops and the militia, the volunteers now numbered 300,000. Pitt himself, who held the old post of Warden of the Cinque Ports, raised and commanded a volunteer corps. Never since the days of the Armada was there such a fear of invasion in England. Bonaparte, or "Boney" as he was called, with his army only thirty miles away across the Channel, was in every one's mind. Mothers used his name to quiet their children: "If you are not good, Boney will have you," they would say.

Pitt returns to Power, 1804. Bonaparte becomes Emperor. End of the French Revolution.—Naturally Pitt was regarded as the right man to deal with the danger, and in the spring of 1804 he again became Minister, having promised the King that he would drop the Catholic Bill.

A week after Pitt took office, Bonaparte made himself Emperor of the French. As a sovereign he was now known by his Christian name, Napoleon; and this war is generally known as the "Napoleonic War." But the British Government never recognised him as Emperor, and persisted in calling him simply General Bonaparte.

The French Revolution had ended in France exchanging her old monarchy for a despotic empire. She wanted firm government, and also was dazzled with military glory. Napoleon was a great ruler as well as a great soldier. He gave France a wonderful code of laws, did away with the republican absurdities, and re-established the Church by an agreement with the Pope. He wanted to heal all the old divisions in France, and many emigrants returned; but the extreme royalists still kept away.

Waiting for the Invasion. Nelson off Toulon, 1803-1804.—For a year and three-quarters after the war began nothing important happened. The army of invasion and the new

Toulon fleet were not yet ready. All that time Nelson was cruising about the neighbourhood of Toulon. For two whole years he never went on land. His flag-ship, the *Victory*, of a hundred guns, which he immortalised, had seen much fighting. She was flag-ship in the indecisive battle with the French in 1778, and at the relief of Gibraltar in 1781. During the last war she had been Lord Hood's flag-ship at Toulon, and Sir John Jervis's at St. Vincent. Though she was now nearly forty years old, she was such a good sailer that she was refitted for Nelson.

It was a tedious time for him, "cruising, cruising" as he himself said, his only comfort the hope that the French would come out. Sometimes they did come out a little way, to train the men; "cutting capers" Nelson called it. He laid traps for them by keeping part of his fleet out of sight, but he could not draw them to a battle. He had a harder task than Cornwallis off Brest, who could easily send ships back to Portsmouth to refit. Nelson's nearest dockyard was at Gibraltar, eight hundred miles away, and there only ordinary repairs could be done. Besides watching Toulon, he had to protect the convoys of merchant ships going to the Levant. Above all, he had to keep his crews healthy by providing them with fresh meat and vegetables from Sardinia and the African coast. He was very proud of his success in this.

Life on the "Victory" during the Blockade.—Of the life on the *Victory* in ordinary weather, when she was as steady as a floating castle, we have some interesting accounts from persons on board. Breakfast was soon after six, the captain of the fleet (a rear-admiral), the captain of the *Victory*, the chaplain, doctor, Nelson's secretaries, and one or two officers, taking it in the admiral's cabin. By eight Nelson had given his directions for the fleet for the day, and occupied the rest of the morning with his main business, finding out what was going on in France from newspapers, captured letters and the like, and in walking the deck. At two the *Victory's* band played; at three was dinner,

to which other captains and admirals were invited in turn. It was announced by a drum beating the "Roast Beef of Old England." There were three courses, dessert of fresh fruit, champagne and other wines. Nelson himself ate and drank very sparingly, owing to his bad health. At table he was the kindest and most genial of hosts. After dinner the company returned to deck, and the band played again. At six there was tea, after which Nelson would sit chatting with his officers. At eight there was punch with cake and biscuits. By nine the admiral was in bed.

Napoleon's Plans for the Invasion.—By the autumn of 1804 Napoleon's army of invasion and the vessels to convey it were ready, but it could not cross while the British fleet guarded the Channel. Napoleon thought of many plans to get over this difficulty, and at last decided that such of his squadrons as could should escape to the West Indies; then, while the British admirals were looking for them in various directions, they would return in one body to the Channel and protect the crossing. Nelson, he was sure, would think the Toulon squadron had gone again to Egypt, and search for it in that direction. Towards the end of the year, Napoleon persuaded Spain to declare war again against Britain, so he now had two Spanish squadrons besides, at Cadiz and at Ferrol, a port on the north-west corner of Spain. These were at once blockaded by two British squadrons.

1805. The Great Race to the West Indies and back. March to August.—On March 1805 the admiral at Toulon, Villeneuve, put to sea, escaped from Nelson's look-out frigates in the night, and, driving off the British squadron before Cadiz, picked up the Spanish ships there and sailed off to the West Indies. Nelson, as Napoleon had expected, went off towards Egypt. Not finding the French, he was in great perplexity and distress of mind for some weeks. At last he got news of them, and, leaving the Mediterranean a month after Villeneuve, reached the West Indies at the beginning of June, three weeks after him, with eleven ships

against his twenty. Villeneuve had done little harm in the West Indies; and, as no other French squadron escaped to join him, he started back for Ferrol to free the Spanish squadron there, and then fall on Cornwallis with overwhelming forces. Nelson followed in pursuit five days later, and this time won the race. But, still thinking it his duty to guard the Mediterranean, he had sailed to Gibraltar, so there was yet a chance that Napoleon's scheme might succeed.

Napoleon's Plan fails. Nelson returns to England. Russia and Austria declare War. August.—Nelson, however, had sent a fast brig from the West Indies with the news of the return of the fleets. It had sighted Villeneuve's fleet, and the captain, directly he reached Portsmouth, had posted up to London with his report. There was an old admiral now at the head of the Admiralty, Lord Barham, whose name deserves to be remembered. He saw through Napoleon's scheme, and had his own plan ready. So Villeneuve, to his surprise, found a fleet waiting for him a hundred miles west of Ferrol, consisting of the two squadrons which had been blockading Ferrol and Rochefort—fifteen ships against his twenty. The battle was indecisive owing to a mist, though two Spanish ships were cut off. But the British commander, Admiral Calder, did not try another battle, and finally fell back to Cornwallis, for which he was afterwards censured. So Villeneuve after all reached Ferrol, and increased his fleet to thirty ships. But he wasted a precious fortnight before anything more was heard of him, in refitting his ships; and Nelson had come round and joined Cornwallis before Brest. Cornwallis sent Calder again against Villeneuve with eighteen ships. Nelson himself sailed on to Portsmouth in the *Victory*, and hauled down his flag for his well-earned rest, for which he had for some time had leave from the Admiralty. As he had, after all, headed Villeneuve off from the Channel, he was received with great enthusiasm when he landed.

All this time Napoleon was at Boulogne, eagerly waiting for Villeneuve. So sure was he of success that he had a medal made in honour of the conquest of Britain, with the words "Struck in London" on it. Villeneuve, indeed, had started again from Ferrol; but the wind was contrary, and he heard a false report that twenty-five ships were coming against him; so he lost heart, threw up the game, and went off to Cadiz. Napoleon was furious at the news; and, as Russia and Austria had again been persuaded by Pitt to declare war, he broke up his camp at Boulogne, and hurried his army against Austria. So ended his scheme for the invasion of Britain.

Medal to celebrate the conquest of Britain.

This represents the victory of Hercules over a giant. Inscription:—'Descente en Angleterre'; and, at bottom, 'Frappée à Londres.'

Head of the Emperor Napoleon with a laurel wreath, the triumphal wreath of the old Romans.

Villeneuve at Cadiz. Nelson resumes his Command. September.—Nelson had been on shore only a fortnight when a frigate arrived with the news that Villeneuve was at Cadiz. He was watched there by Admiral Collingwood, an old friend of Nelson's, who had been off Cadiz with a small squadron, and had been joined by Calder. Nelson offered his services, which were accepted. On September 15 the *Victory* was ready, and he sailed. As he

got into his boat at Portsmouth, a crowd of people pressed forward to bid him farewell. Many were in tears, and many knelt before him and blessed him as he passed. He was going resolved to win a crushing victory. "Depend upon it," he said, "I shall yet give M. Villeneuve a drubbing." On September 28, the day before his forty-seventh birthday, he joined the fleet amid great enthusiasm. Other ships had joined, and he now had nearly thirty. He had already made his plan for the battle, and knew he could rely on Collingwood. "We can, my dear Coll," he wrote, in sending him the plan, "have no petty jealousies. No man has more confidence in another than I have in you."

Villeneuve comes out of Cadiz. Battle of Trafalgar, October 21, 1805.—It was three weeks before Villeneuve left Cadiz. He was resolved to fight, though hopeless of success, to appease Napoleon's wrath. On October 21 the battle of Trafalgar was fought. Nelson felt sure of his prey. The day before he said at dinner, "To-morrow I will do that which will give you younger gentlemen something to talk and think about for the rest of your lives; but I shall not live to know about it myself." He had a feeling that he would fall when the task of his life was done.

The next morning the two fleets were in sight of one another, about ten miles apart, thirty-three French and Spanish ships to twenty-seven British. But the British fleet was really the stronger, owing to the better training and confidence of the men. The allies were between Cadiz and Gibraltar, near a small cape called Trafalgar.

In two divisions, a mile apart, led by Nelson in the *Victory* and Collingwood in the *Royal Sovereign*, the British bore down on the foe. The wind was behind them, but it was so light that speed was hardly two miles an hour. As they neared the enemy, Nelson hoisted his famous signal—"England expects every man to do his duty." Silently the great ships came on, for not a shot was to be fired till they were at close quarters. At a little after twelve the *Royal Sovereign* broke the line astern of the

Spanish vice-admiral commanding the rear, raked his ship from stern to bow with a broadside that did terrible havoc, and engaged her yard-arm to yard-arm till she surrendered. Three-quarters of an hour later the *Victory*, which had already lost her mizzen-topmast and had several men killed and wounded, passed under the stern of Villeneuve's ship in the centre, raked it with equal effect, and then fell on board a two-decker. The other ships, as they came up, broke into the allied line, Collingwood's in the rear, Nelson's in the centre. The eleven "van" or front ships of the allies were left out of action, and did not come round till it was too late. This was Nelson's plan. It was, however, a long time before his slower ships came up; and the leading ships suffered terribly; half the total loss fell on the *Victory*, *Royal Sovereign*, and four others. But they did their work; the formation of the allies was broken. Riddled and dismasted by the terrible British fire, ship after ship began to strike.

Death of Nelson.—But down below in the cockpit of the *Victory*, the great admiral lay dying. A quarter of an hour after the *Victory* fell on board the French ship, he had been shot through the lungs and spine by a marksman in her mizzen-top. With his orders, which he always wore in full dress, he was a conspicuous object at the distance, under twenty yards. The officers had been anxious about him; and the doctor intended to ask him to take them off, but had no opportunity. "They have done for me at last, Hardy," he exclaimed to his captain, an old friend; and, as he was carried down, he put his handkerchief over his face to prevent the crew recognising him. As he lay, attended by the chaplain and doctor, his thoughts were sometimes on the battle, sometimes on his approaching end. He often murmured, "God be praised, I have done my duty." As the *Victory* thundered out a final volley at the flying foe, he exclaimed, "O Victory! Victory! how you distract my poor brain." His last words were, "God and my country." Then, in

the words of the *Victory's* log: "Partial firing continued until 4.30, when, a victory having been reported to the Right Honourable Lord Viscount Nelson, K.B., he expired of his wound."

After Trafalgar.—The sun was setting. Over a mile apart lay the *Victory* and *Royal Sovereign*, both dismasted, with their shattered prizes round them, eighteen in all. One French ship was burning. In the distance the survivors were flying, some for Cadiz, four for the open sea. A gale came on in the night, and Collingwood had much difficulty in saving the fleet. The dismasted ships, including the *Victory* and *Royal Sovereign*, were towed to Gibraltar. Some of the prizes were wrecked; three were recovered by the enemy, who came out of Cadiz during the confusion, but they lost three more. Four only of the prizes remained in our hands. But the four that escaped to sea from the battle were caught by an equal British squadron off the coast of Spain, and all taken. Ten only out of Villeneuve's thirty-three were left at Cadiz; and none of the French ships ever returned to France.

The triumph and grief with which the news of Trafalgar was received in England may easily be imagined. Nelson's body was brought home in the *Victory*, after she had been refitted at Gibraltar. On January 1806 he was buried at St. Paul's. His funeral was attended by all the royal princes, thirty admirals, and a hundred captains. The *Victory* went to sea again for a few more years. In 1825 she was made the flag-ship of the port-admiral at Portsmouth, and still remains so, the only one of the old wooden ships on the present Navy List.

Death of Pitt, January 1806.—When the great admiral was buried, the great statesman was already dying. Napoleon had crushed Austria; and Pitt, worn out by his long struggle, sank under the blow. Rapidly moving his army from Boulogne, Napoleon had cut off an Austrian army on the Danube in Bavaria, and forced it to surrender, two days before Trafalgar. Rumours reached England

The Victory being towed into Gibraltar after the Battle of Trafalgar.
From a picture in the Royal United Service Institution.

which Pitt would not believe. Next day he received a Dutch newspaper with the account. It was translated to him, and he went away, it is said, with death in his face. Four days later, on November 7, came the news of Trafalgar.

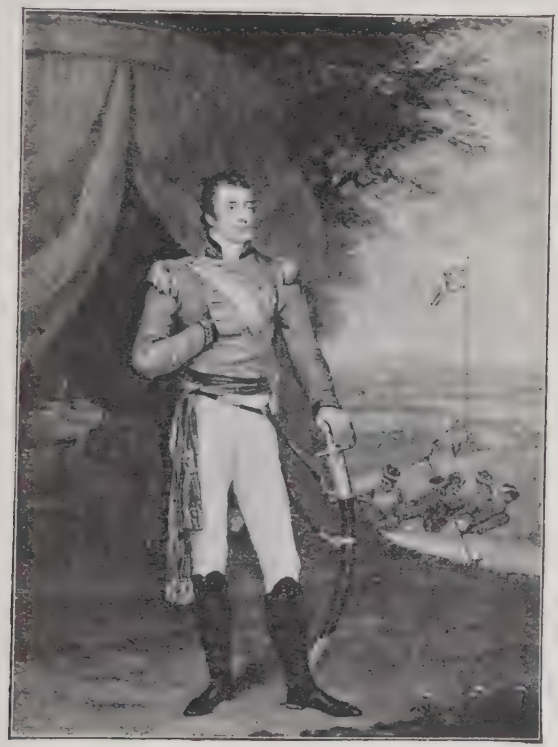
On November 9, at the Lord Mayor's banquet, Pitt made his last public speech. "England," he said, "has saved herself by her energy; may she save Europe by her example." He went to Bath to recruit his health for the meeting of Parliament in January; but Parliament met without him. On December 2 Napoleon won the greatest of his victories at Austerlitz, the battle of the three Emperors, for the Tsar of Russia had come up with his army. Austria had to sue for peace. "Roll up that map," said Pitt, when he heard the news, pointing to the map of Europe, "it will not be wanted for ten years." Canning, of whom you will soon hear, used to talk afterwards of his "Austerlitz look." He left Bath a dying man. In the middle of January he reached his villa at Putney, and passed away before the end of the month.

Pitt had to leave to others the completion of his task. But "the pilot who weathered the storm," as Canning called him, had pointed out the way. Napoleon for some years more bestrode Europe as a conqueror. But Nelson at Trafalgar had made England safe from any future danger of invasion.

The one Meeting between Nelson and Wellington.—A few days before Nelson left England for his last battle, he called at the War Office, and there met a general whose name he had to ask. He found it was Sir Arthur Wellesley, just returned a victor from India, afterwards the great Duke of Wellington, who completed on land the triumph which Nelson won on sea. This was the only time that the paths of the two heroes crossed.

Arthur Wellesley, the fourth son of the Earl of Mornington, an Irish peer, was born in 1769. He went to Eton, but, being intended for the army, was sent to a military college in France for a year, there being no such institution

in England. He joined the army at the age of eighteen, and commanded an infantry regiment under the Duke of York in the unsuccessful war in the Netherlands. Next, he was sent with his regiment to India, for the regular army now reinforced the Company's British troops.



Sir Arthur Wellesley (afterwards Duke of Wellington).
From a picture painted in Calcutta in 1804.

Colonel Wellesley's career hitherto does not seem to have given promise of his future greatness, for the parents of the lady whom he afterwards married at this time refused their consent to the marriage.

India. Capture of Seringapatam, 1799. Defeat of the Mahrattas, 1803.—We must now go with Colonel Wellesley to India, and see what had been happening there. A few years before, there had been a war with Tippoo Sahib, who had been beaten and forced to surrender half his territory. Soon after Colonel Wellesley arrived, his eldest brother, the Earl of Mornington, a bold and able statesman and a great friend of Pitt's, came out as Governor-General. He found the French stirring up our old foes—Tippoo Sahib and the Mahrattas. Lord Mornington fell first upon Tippoo Sahib. His capital, Seringapatam, was stormed after hard fighting in May 1799, and Tippoo himself was slain. Mysore was restored to its old line of rulers under British protection, and ceased to be a danger. Colonel Wellesley was left in charge, and soon showed his ability.

His brother, who for his success had been made Marquis Wellesley, next turned his attention to the Mahrattas. In a three years' hard-fought war, from 1803 to 1805, the Mahrattas' power was broken. Arthur Wellesley, now a general, commanded one British army with great success. Among the battles fought, the most famous was his victory of Assaye, in 1803, won with 7000 men against 50,000. The Marquis Wellesley had made our power in India secure, and had added much territory to our rule. But the Directors were alarmed at his warlike policy, owing to the expense and some reverses which occurred, so they recalled him; this annoyed Sir Arthur, and he returned home also.

"Ministry of All the Talents." Napoleon's great Power in Europe. Death of Fox, 1806.—In Britain, after the death of Pitt, a joint Ministry of Whigs and Tories was formed, known as "All the Talents." George III. had to accept Fox, who thus became again a minister after twenty-three years of opposition. He was Foreign Secretary. As he always had been against the war with France, he began to discuss peace with Napoleon; but the Emperor was in the midst of schemes for exalting himself and his family. He had joined all northern Italy to France, including

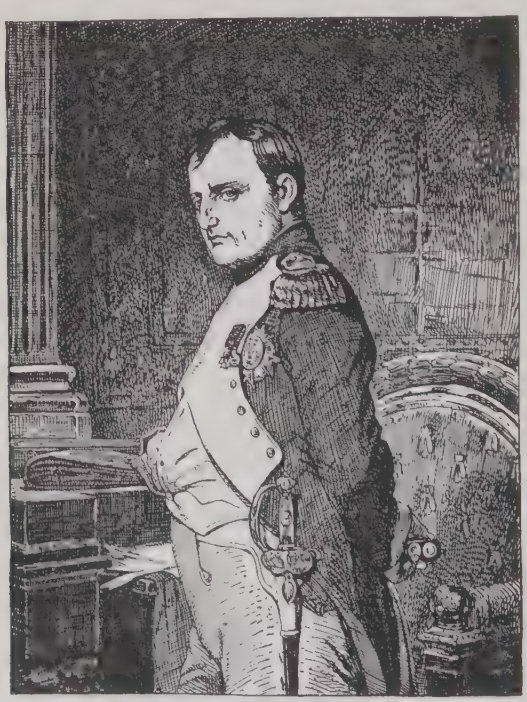
Venice, given up by Austria, and had assumed the title of King of Italy. In the south he had made his eldest brother, Joseph, King of Naples. The two Italian Kings of Naples and Sardinia now held only their islands of Sicily and Sardinia. His brother Louis he made King of Holland.

Then he induced the smaller states of Germany to form a "Confederation of the Rhine," under French protection, rewarding the Electors of Bavaria and Saxony, and the Duke of Würtemberg with the title of King. This put an end to the old German Empire, and the German Emperor henceforth called himself Emperor of Austria. Napoleon has thus made himself a second Charlemagne, ruling France, Germany and Italy. So he discussed peace with Fox simply to deceive Britain, and prevent her helping Russia, which was still at war with France. Fox at last found out his insincerity, to his own bitter disappointment. He died in September, following his rival Pitt to the grave in less than a year.

Prussia declares War on Napoleon. Her Crushing Defeat, 1806. Napoleon makes Peace with Russia, 1807.—Just at this time the King of Prussia, who had allowed Austria to be crushed, was forced by his subjects to declare war on France. The Prussians were naturally angry at Napoleon's power in Germany, and, still dreaming of the days of Frederick the Great, believed their army to be invincible. But on one terrible day, in two battles fought ten miles apart, near the town of Jena, that fine army, 200,000 strong, was utterly defeated and scattered to the winds. Prussia lay at Napoleon's feet: he occupied Berlin, and marched on, during the winter, to the Russian frontier. There he fought a desperate and indecisive battle with the Russians; but in the summer of 1807 he won a decisive victory.

The Tsar Alexander, who was angry with Britain for not helping him at this time, made peace. He was quite won over by Napoleon at a personal interview, and they agreed to divide Europe between them. Napoleon was to be supreme in the west, Alexander in the east. Unfor-

tunate Prussia lost much territory: her Polish land was made into a "Grand Duchy of Warsaw" under French protection; her territory west of the Elbe, together with Hanover, was made into a new kingdom under Napoleon's youngest brother Jerome, part of the Confederation of the



The Emperor Napoleon.

Rhine. Prussia was not allowed to have an army of more than 40,000 men; and had, moreover, to pay several millions of pounds to France.

Napoleon and Britain. The Continental System and the Orders in Council.—The hated British alone, the "nation

of shopkeepers" as he called them, just as Louis XIV. had called the Dutch, still defied Napoleon. Mighty as Napoleon was, his power stopped at the seashore, so our squadrons could carry troops all over the world. The oversea possessions of France and her allies gradually fell into our hands, including the Cape of Good Hope again and much of the Dutch East Indies. Here and there his cruisers and privateers might capture British merchant ships, for our men-of-war could not be everywhere, but the French merchant ships were swept from the seas.

Napoleon, unable to fight Britain on the sea, now tried to ruin her trade by closing Europe to her. He issued a decree from Berlin that France, and nations in alliance with her, should buy no goods from Britain; this was known as the "Continental System." The British Ministry then issued "Orders in Council" that no country should send trading ships to France under penalty of having them captured. This naturally annoyed the neutral countries, especially the United States, and some years later caused a war between the United States and Britain. The Continental System did little harm to Britain; people could not be stopped from trying to buy foreign goods, which were smuggled in on British ships in enormous quantities; and so our trade increased rather than diminished. Even Napoleon found himself forced to buy some British goods, such as cloth for his soldiers' uniforms.

Another device of Napoleon's was to attempt to get hold of the Danish fleet and use it against Britain, for the Orders in Council again turned Denmark against Britain. The Tsar too had secretly agreed to help Napoleon in this.

Tory Ministry; Canning seizes the Danish Fleet.—Just after this George III. dismissed the Ministry of All the Talents because they took up the Roman Catholic question, and a wholly Tory Ministry came in, determined to carry on the struggle with Napoleon and keep down all revolutionary ideas at home. It was strongly supported by the upper classes, and remained in power for over twenty

years, under several Prime Ministers, who were mostly men of no great powers. There was one very able man, George Canning, who was made Foreign Secretary. He was the son of a barrister, and was educated at Eton and at Christ Church, Oxford, where he was at the beginning of the French Revolution. He had made such a name by his abilities that, in 1793, when he was only twenty-three, Pitt brought him into Parliament. Canning had been brought up a Whig, but the French Revolution made him, like so many others, a Tory. Ill-natured people said he changed his opinions for the sake of his career. He was a loyal and admiring follower of Pitt, who after a few years gave him a small post in the Ministry; and he attacked the revolutionaries at home by his clever and witty writings.

Canning's first act was to defeat Napoleon's Danish plan, which he had discovered. A British fleet was sent against Denmark, with an army too this time; and the King of Denmark was forced to give up his fleet to Britain to be kept while the war lasted. Thus Denmark, which wanted only to be at peace with the world, twice suffered from the strife of her two powerful neighbours.

SUMMARY.

War begins again; the Camp at Boulogne; Nelson in the Mediterranean—Pitt returns to power—Bonaparte becomes Emperor; his wise government in France—Nelson's long blockade of Toulon—Napoleon's plans to baffle the British fleet—The race to the West Indies and back (Nelson and Villeneuve); end of the Invasion scheme—Austria and Russia declare war—The battle of Trafalgar and death of Nelson—Defeats of the Austrians, and death of Pitt.

India; capture of Seringapatam; end of Tippoo Sahib—Defeat of the Mahrattas.

War between France and Prussia; utter defeat of Prussia—The Tsar's alliance with Napoleon—Trade war between Napoleon and Britain—Tory Ministry; Canning; seizure of Danish fleet.

DATE.

1805. Battles of Trafalgar and Austerlitz.

CHAPTER LVI

George III., 1760-1820

(V)

Wellington

The Peninsular War and Waterloo

Napoleon seizes Portugal and Spain. Britain's Opportunity; the Peninsular War, 1808-1814.—From the time that the Tory Ministry came in, there could be no peace till Britain or Napoleon was beaten to the ground, though some of the Whigs still regarded Napoleon as the champion of liberty. For eight more years the war went on. The lower orders suffered terribly, for the price of food at times rose enormously.

The difficulty was where to attack Napoleon on land, as we again had no allies. Fortunately he soon gave us the opportunity we wanted, owing to his ever-increasing ambition. The little kingdom of Portugal was friendly to Britain, and did not like shutting out our goods. So, with the leave of the Spanish Government, Napoleon sent an army through Spain against Lisbon. The little Portuguese army could do nothing; the royal family and many nobles went away on British ships to the Portuguese colony of Brazil, and Portugal fell into Napoleon's hands. But this was not all. His ally, the King of Spain, was feeble and on bad terms with his heir; and there were troubles at Madrid. Napoleon made this an excuse to send an army to Madrid. Then he induced the royal family to meet him at Bayonne, treacherously seized them, forced the King

to abdicate, and sent his own brother Joseph from Naples to Spain as King, putting a French general in Naples in his place.

But the Spanish and Portuguese people had no intention of submitting. They rose in rebellion, and sent to Britain for help. The British nation took up their cause with enthusiasm. Arms and money were sent; and the Ministry decided to dispatch an army, for, with our fleet commanding the sea, it was easy to send troops.

Some of the Whigs, however, thought it hopeless to defy the enormous power of Napoleon on land. As will be seen, the task was very hard, for the Spanish and Portuguese, though brave, were badly disciplined, badly equipped, and had bad generals. Still, we kept a large number of French troops occupied, and so weakened Napoleon in his other wars. This war in Spain and Portugal is known as the "Peninsular War," as Spain and Portugal are the great peninsula of Europe.

1808. Landing in Portugal. Battle of Vimeiro. Portugal saved. Besides Sir Arthur Wellesley there was another able general, also an Irishman, Sir John Moore, who had distinguished himself in Egypt. Both he and Sir Arthur were given commands for the war; and both hoped for the supreme command. But the Ministry gave it to the governor of Gibraltar, who had seen no fighting, with an equally unsuitable general as second-in-command. Moore complained bitterly to the Ministry; but Wellesley had more self-restraint.

Wellesley landed in Portugal first, and, at the head of about 20,000 men, was marching down the coast towards Lisbon, when at a town called Vimeiro he was attacked by the French. He won an easy victory, and the British troops showed what they could do when well led. But the second-in-command, landing during the battle, stopped the pursuit, thinking it too risky. Wellesley was of course much annoyed. The next day the commander-in-chief arrived, and the army continued its advance on Lisbon.

But the French general now offered to leave Portugal on condition that his army was conveyed back to France. After several days' discussion, during which Sir John Moore arrived with his force, the British commander agreed. The "Convention of Cintra" was signed, and Portugal was freed from the French.

Joseph retreats from Madrid. Napoleon in Spain.—Things were looking bright at this time. A French army of nearly 20,000 men, sent from Madrid to conquer the south, had been surrounded and forced to surrender just when Sir Arthur Wellesley was starting on his expedition, so King Joseph had retreated to the French frontier. Napoleon was very angry at the disgrace of the French

arms, and marched to settle the Spanish business once for all with an overwhelming army of 300,000.

The British army at Lisbon was to join the Spaniards against him. Its commander was now after all Sir John Moore. The British at home were disappointed at the Convention, expecting to hear that the French had been taken prisoners, as they probably might have been if Sir Arthur had remained in command. So the Ministry recalled the other generals, including Wellesley, but a court of inquiry acquitted them. It is an interesting fact, showing the unselfishness and sense of duty of Sir Arthur Wellesley, that, instead of feeling any rivalry towards Moore, he had advised him not to ruin his chances of obtaining the command by persisting in his quarrel with the Ministry.

Napoleon defeats the Spanish, but is outwitted by Moore.—Sir John Moore had now gained his desire, the command of an army in a great campaign. His orders were to join the Spaniards in resisting Napoleon on the northern frontier. But fortune treated him very hardly. The Spaniards had given him most glowing accounts of their numbers and chance of victory, but directly Napoleon attacked them, he scattered them like chaff, and was soon in Madrid. Moore's preparations for his five hundred mile march and the bad roads had so delayed him, that by this time he was only half-way—at Salamanca, a town of which you will hear again. Not wishing to retreat without striking some blow, he continued his march against the French general who was protecting the road to France. The result was exactly what he expected. Napoleon dropped his other plans, and hurried after him to cut him off. Moore with 20,000 men had one French army in front of him, and another large one under Napoleon coming up in his rear. But he had made his arrangements to "run for it," as he called it. He could not get back to Lisbon, but he had ordered the ships to meet him at Corunna in the north-west corner of Spain.

There was a race for a certain river bridge ; and Napoleon was so sure of success that he told Joseph to publish in the newspapers of Madrid that the British had surrendered. But Moore was too quick for him ; and when the French cavalry reached the river, the British were all across, and

Mansell, photo.

Sir John Moore.

the bridge was being broken down. For a few days Napoleon continued the pursuit. Then came news that Austria, encouraged by the Spanish war, was going to attack him, so he handed over the pursuit to Marshal Soult, who commanded the other army, and went off to France with a large part of his troops. Napoleon never returned to Spain again.

The Retreat to Corunna. Battle and Death of Moore, January 1809.—Moore accomplished his retreat of two hundred miles, but at a terrible cost. It was now winter; the country was mountainous, and the troops, both officers and men, were angry at retreating before the enemy, for they did not know all that Moore knew. Discipline became bad; men straggled; many of them broke into wine-stores in the towns, became intoxicated, and fell into the hands of the French. Over 3000 men were lost, but some reached Portugal and rejoined the army there. Finally, the ships did not reach Corunna till three days after the army, so a battle had to be fought. The army at once recovered its discipline. Soult was repulsed, but Moore was struck down by a cannon-ball. His last words were, "I hope my country will do me justice." It did not at the time, for the arrival of the army at Portsmouth straight from their terrible retreat made people think there had been a great disaster. Really he had saved southern Spain for a time by drawing Napoleon to the north. Moore's death, at the beginning of his career as commander in a great war is as sad as that of Nelson in the moment of victory. What those who knew him felt, is shown by the fact that a statesman, when asked about him years afterwards, burst into tears.

1809. Sir Arthur Wellesley commands in Portugal. The Failure against Antwerp.—Sir John Moore had intended to return to Portugal after his army had recovered in England from the effects of the retreat. Owing to his death, Sir Arthur Wellesley, the victor of Vimeiro, was sent to Lisbon in his place, for Canning was determined not to desert our allies.

At the same time, to help Austria in her war, a large army was also sent to attack Antwerp. But by the time the preparations had been completed, the Austrians, after a gallant, and at one time successful struggle, had been defeated. And the expedition was so mismanaged, and the troops lost so many men by disease on the island of

Walcheren at the mouth of the Scheldt, that they were brought back to England without ever attacking Antwerp at all. Canning was very angry at this failure; he wanted Lord Castlereagh, who managed the war, to be dismissed. This led to a duel between them, in which Canning was wounded, after which they both resigned.

Sir Arthur Wellesley in the Peninsula. Difficulties of the British and French.—Sir Arthur Wellesley, after his second landing in the Peninsula, did not leave it till he had driven the French out. But it took him four years to do it, for he had great difficulties. His army was small, and the British Ministry did not support him as well as they might, for, after the loss of Canning, they were less hopeful of success. Sir Arthur knew that, if he were badly defeated, they would give up the war, so he had to be extremely careful, and run no risks. Moreover, he found the Spaniards very troublesome allies. They were jealous of him, and would not give him the command of their troops; and their incompetent generals spoilt his plans. The Portuguese did indeed give him their troops, who were commanded by General Beresford with the Portuguese rank of marshal, and, under proper discipline, proved themselves in time worthy comrades of the British; but throughout the war Sir Arthur had to employ as much statesmanship in dealing with the Portuguese and Spanish governments as generalship in fighting the French.

The French, too, had their difficulties. Their numbers were, indeed, very large, but most of them were engaged in fighting the Spaniards, holding the conquered parts, and guarding the road to France. In spite of their continual defeats, the Spaniards persistently kept up the struggle; and, besides the regular armies, there were bands of irregulars all over the country who were a great source of trouble to the French. King Joseph himself was not a general; his generals did not respect him, and sometimes quarrelled among themselves. Napoleon used to send very good advice, but he could not direct the war properly

at a distance; and his advice often came late or was disregarded.

1809. Oporto and Talavera.—Soult had advanced after Corunna into the north of Portugal, and was in possession of Oporto (the great port at the mouth of the Douro); and Wellesley's first stroke was to send him flying back into the mountains with the loss of his artillery. Wellesley's crossing of the Douro into Oporto was one of his finest feats of arms. Next he marched up the Tagus, to join a Spanish army and attack Madrid. A battle was fought at Talavera, on the north bank of the Tagus, in which 20,000 British repulsed 40,000 French after a bloody struggle, while the Spanish general with 30,000 men did little more than look on. Then Soult, who had been reinforced, came down with a large army on his rear, and he had only just time to escape to the other side of the river. In the end Wellesley got back safely to Portugal, but he made up his mind never again to trust the Spanish generals. For the victory of Talavera he was made Lord Wellington.

1810. The Lines of Torres Vedras.—Napoleon, having finished the Austrian War, sent over 100,000 more men to Spain, and his best marshal, to drive the British into the sea. Wellington, however, had his plan. Lisbon is on a hilly peninsula, about thirty miles broad, between the Atlantic and the wide mouth of the Tagus, so during the winter he had very strong entrenchments thrown up, about thirty miles north of Lisbon, from the ocean to the river. As the French could not get round them, they could only take them by assault. These fortifications are known as the "Lines of Torres Vedras," from a village of that name.

It was not till the end of the summer that the French invasion began, for they had first to conquer two Spanish fortresses on the frontier north and south of Tagus, Ciudad Rodrigo and Badajos (pronounced Theeudad Rodreego and Bádahoth). Wellington fell steadily back before the "Army of Portugal," as the invading army was called. He ordered the country people to retire within the lines, and destroy

what they could not take with them, so as not to leave food for the French—such are the cruel necessities of war. About half-way Wellington halted in a strong position, and repulsed the French; but being unable to prevent their advance by another road, he retired into the lines. They were a complete surprise to the French general, who, after examining them, decided that they were too strong to be attacked. He remained in Portugal all the winter, his army suffering great privations; and in the spring of 1811 he retreated, closely followed by Wellington, having lost nearly half his men. During this year Soult overran southern Spain. Cadiz alone held out, for it was on the sea, and could be helped by the British fleet, which in the old wars had so often attacked it.

1811. Indecisive Fighting in Spain. Albuera. Napoleon and the Tsar.—Torres Vedras marks the lowest point of our fortunes in the Peninsula after Corunna. But Napoleon's great stroke had failed, and from this time the tide began to turn. Napoleon, though at the height of his power in Europe, was falling out with the Tsar of Russia. Instead of reinforcements coming to Spain, troops were being gradually withdrawn. Wellington's army was being steadily increased. He had able generals under him, and the men, accustomed to war and confident in their leader, were in splendid fighting form.

He was not indeed strong enough to overthrow the French or retake Ciudad Rodrigo and Badajos, which was now his object, and the French were not strong enough to invade Portugal, so there was a deadlock on the frontier. Near Ciudad Rodrigo Wellington repulsed the "Army of Portugal" at the village of Fuentes d'Onoro; and near Badajos Soult was repulsed at Albuera, the bloodiest battle of the war, by Marshal Beresford, who besides his Portuguese had a British force, and was also joined by a Spanish army. Beresford took up a bad position, and would have been beaten, though superior in numbers, had not the British troops retrieved the day with terrible loss to themselves.

NAPOLEON'S EMPIRE
1812
Scale, 1:2,400,000
English Miles
0 50 100 200 300 400
Empire and dependencies
Empire under French rule
Boundary of France in 1789
Battlefields
ENGLAND
DENMARK
Copenhagen
RUSSIA
Hanover
Berlin
GRAND DUCHY OF WARSAW
Amsterdam
CONFEDERATION OF THE RHINE
Antwerp
Waterloo 1815
Dresden
Boulogne
Brest
Paris
AUSTRIAN EMPIRE
Ulm
Vienna
Pesth
HUNGARY
Vendee
SWITZERLAND
FRANCE
Rochefort
Lyons
Turin
KINGDOM OF ITALY
Venice
Ferrol
Bayonne
Bordeaux
Toulouse
Genoa
TURKISH EMPIRE
Marseilles
Toulon
CORSICA
Elba
Rome
KINGDOM OF NAPLES
Madrid
SPAIN
Naples
Lisbon
PORTUGAL
Minorca
KINGDOM OF SARDINIA
Ionian Islands
Cadiz
Trafalgar 1805
Gibraltar
KINGDOM OF SICILY
Emery Walker sc.

1812. Napoleon. Russia. Salamanca.—By the next spring, Napoleon was preparing for an invasion of Russia. "Which is the best road to Moscow?" he jeeringly asked the Russian ambassador at their last interview. "All roads, sire, according to the Russian saying, lead to Moscow," was the reply, "but the best road is by Pultowa," the town where Charles XII. of Sweden had been utterly defeated, about a century before, in his invasion of Russia.

As Napoleon was now withdrawing more troops from Spain, Wellington this year felt strong enough to invade Spain. Early in the year he had succeeded in retaking Ciudad Rodrigo and Badajos, but he had to storm them with heavy loss after short sieges, before the French could come to their relief. Then in the summer he marched into Spain against the "Army of Portugal," and, owing to an error of its general, won a great victory at Salamanca. King Joseph fled from Madrid to the east coast, and Wellington entered the capital in triumph.

But Soult abandoned the siege of Cadiz, and came with his army to Joseph's aid, and the Army of Portugal had recovered from its defeat while the British were vainly trying to take the town of Burgos in the north. So Wellington had to fall back again to Portugal. Still, the victory of Salamanca greatly encouraged the British and their allies, and delivered the south of Spain from the French. It was followed in the winter by a terrible disaster to Napoleon in Russia, which entirely changed the aspect of affairs in Europe and the Peninsula.

Napoleon's Disaster in Russia; Winter of 1812.—With a huge army of 500,000 men, half of them French, the rest Germans, Italians and Poles, Napoleon had started in June on his six hundred mile march from Poland to Moscow. The Russians, much fewer in number, fell back slowly. In September they fought his main army seventy miles from Moscow, but were driven back after terrible carnage on both sides. Napoleon entered Moscow, expecting that

the Tsar would now submit, but he was as determined as ever to resist. That very night fires broke out in Moscow, lit by the Russians themselves. Nearly all the city was destroyed; and after about a month Napoleon found he must retire, for it would be impossible to winter at Moscow.

Thus began the most awful retreat in history. Men and horses were worn out by the hardships of the campaign; provisions were scarce. The Russians, burning with vengeance, continually assailed the retreating foe. The peasants killed stragglers and prisoners with horrible tortures—the vengeance of God, they said. In November snow began to fall, and the Russian winter completed the destruction of the invaders. On December 5 Napoleon left his troops, and hurried to Paris to raise a fresh army. Nine days later the survivors, a few hundred men, reached safety in Poland; and the Russians, who had lost half their numbers, gave up the pursuit. About a hundred thousand of the invaders who had not been in Moscow also survived. Napoleon's ambition had at last ruined him; his downfall was only a question of time.

1813. Vittoria. The French Driven out of Spain.—There was now no more question of the French conquering Spain. Napoleon had to recall many of the troops to strengthen his new army of conscripts. All Joseph could hope to do was to defend the line from Madrid to the Pyrenees. And Wellington, after his long struggle of four years, at last saw the way open to success. The Spaniards had at last made him commander-in-chief of their armies, so he had 200,000 men under him, rather more than the French. With 90,000 men—40,000 British, the rest Portuguese and Spaniards—he started in May to march to the Pyrenees. So sure was he of success that, as he rode across the frontier, he raised his cocked hat, and bade farewell to Portugal.

Steadily he pushed the French back, and in June defeated them at Vittoria (the Spanish for "victory"), under the western end of the Pyrenees. Joseph had left

Madrid for the third, and, as it proved, last time; and his army was encumbered with an enormous train of carts and carriages, conveying the whole establishment of his court and government, and about £1,000,000 just sent from France for the army. Badly commanded, for Marshal Soult had gone to join Napoleon in Germany, the French army was nearly surrounded by Wellington, and only escaped into France with the loss of all its artillery and the enormous train of baggage.

Napoleon at once sent back Marshal Soult with reinforcements to command the beaten army; and Soult restored the spirits of the troops by telling them that their defeat was owing to bad leadership, not to their own fault, and that he would lead them to victory. However, able and brave as he was, he was not the equal of Wellington. There was fierce fighting in the passes of the Pyrenees near the Bay of Biscay; and by the end of the year Wellington had forced his way on to the soil of France.

1813. War of Liberation in Germany. Battle of Leipsic.—While Wellington was triumphing in Spain, a fierce war known as the "War of Liberation" was being fought in Germany. The victorious Russians were joined first by the Prussians, then by the Austrians, and finally by the German states of the Confederation of the Rhine. Napoleon himself, who no longer had his old veterans, showed his old skill, and won several victories; but they were not decisive as in the old days, and some of his generals were badly beaten. His enemies, fighting for freedom, showed a new spirit; and at last, in October 1813, at the great battle of Leipsic, which the Germans call the "Battle of Nations," he was overwhelmed by numbers, and driven out of Germany.

1814. The Invasion of France and Downfall of Napoleon.—Early in the year 1814 the invasion of France began. Wellington in the south steadily pushed Soult back; while the Allies, in three great armies, advanced from the Rhine on Paris. Napoleon, hopelessly outnumbered, won

some brilliant successes, but in April Paris surrendered and Napoleon abdicated. Just at the same time Wellington won his last success over Soult at Toulouse.

Thus was the great conqueror overthrown, ruined by his own senseless ambition in invading Russia and seizing Spain. He was allowed to retain his title of Emperor, and given the little island of Elba near Italy to rule as a principality of his own; and a congress assembled at Vienna to resettle Europe. The brother of Louis XVI. became King of France, with a Parliament like the British. He was called Louis XVIII., the little Dauphin, Louis XVI.'s son, who died in captivity, being regarded by the French Royalists as Louis XVII.

The War with the United States, 1812-1814.—Many of the veteran Peninsular regiments, instead of returning home, were shipped off to America, owing to our unfortunate war with the United States. This war had broken out in 1812, and was caused, as you have read, by our trade quarrel with France, for we insisted on searching neutral ships to see if they had any goods for France.

Since the War of Independence, the United States had greatly prospered and had doubled its population, which now numbered seven millions. The territory as far as the Mississippi had been occupied; and settlers were already crossing the river, for the territory between it and the Pacific, which had been given to Spain in 1763, had been restored by her to France, and afterwards sold by Napoleon to the United States.

The most notable fact of the war is that our naval pride suffered greatly. The Americans had less than a dozen warships, frigates and sloops, but they were generally more heavily armed than the British, and the men were well trained, while the British had grown careless about their training. Consequently, in several single combats the Americans were victorious. But it was some solace to the British pride when the *Shannon*, whose captain had trained his men well, challenged the *Chesapeake*, lying in

Boston harbour, to come out and fight, and took her in ten minutes, under the eyes of the Bostonians.

The other fighting was at first on the Canadian frontier. The Canadians were mainly successful on land, but on the lakes, where both sides built small squadrons, the Americans won the day.

When the Peninsular veterans arrived, they won a victory and took Washington, the new capital, and greatly angered the Americans by wantonly burning the Government buildings. With the downfall of Napoleon, the cause of the quarrel disappeared, and peace was made at the end of 1814. A fortnight later, in January 1815, before the news had crossed the Atlantic, a badly managed attack on New Orleans, at the mouth of the Mississippi, was repulsed with heavy loss. The only result of the war was to increase the ill-feeling in the United States towards the former mother country.

1815. Return of Napoleon. The "Hundred Days": March to June.—The restless spirit of Napoleon could not remain cooped up in Elba; and the Bourbon King, brought back by foreign arms, was naturally not popular. In March 1815 Napoleon secretly crossed over to St. Raphael in the south of France, and was enthusiastically welcomed by the troops there. Marshal Ney, the "bravest of the brave," who had commanded the rearguard at the end of the Russian campaign, fighting musket in hand like a common soldier, was sent to command the army against him. "I will bring Bonaparte back in an iron cage," he said. But he could not resist the magic influence of his old chief, who sent tempting appeals to him. He proclaimed the Emperor in an address to his troops, and carried them over with him. Deserted by the army, Louis XVIII. fled to Ghent; and Napoleon was soon again in Paris.

The return of Napoleon fell like a bombshell on the Congress of the Allies. The work of 1814 was undone, and a fresh invasion of France was necessary. The armies

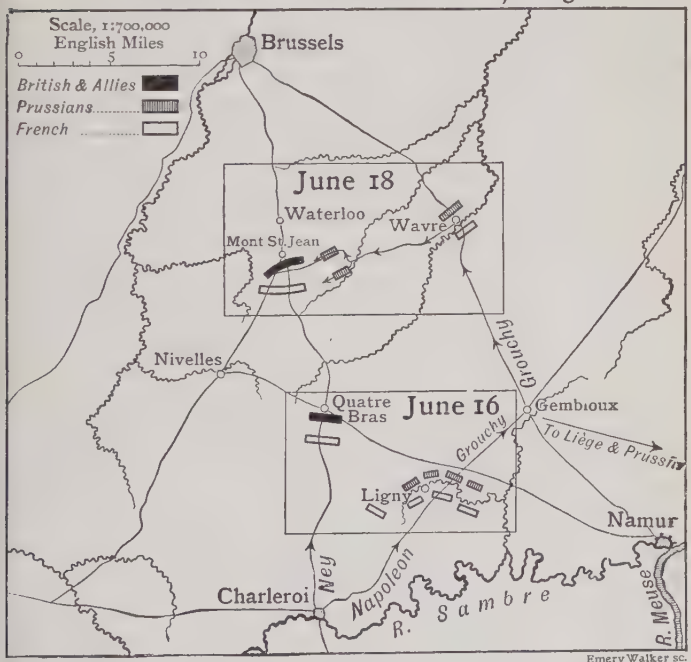
were again collected. The first in the field were the British and Prussians, who assembled in Belgium under the Duke of Wellington and Marshal Blücher, a gallant old cavalry officer, who had commanded the Prussians in the War of Liberation. Wellington had a mixed army of about 90,000 men, of whom less than half were British; and many of these were newly raised troops, owing to the absence of the Peninsular veterans in America. The rest of his army were Hanoverians, Brunswickers, with some not very trustworthy Netherland troops who had fought under Napoleon and held him in great awe. Blücher had 100,000 Prussians.

The Campaign of Waterloo. Battles of Quatre Bras and Ligny, June 16.—Wellington and Blücher were waiting for the Austrians and Russians to cross the Rhine. Napoleon determined to crush them first. His plan was first to defeat Blücher, before Wellington could come up, and then defeat Wellington. On June 15, with 125,000 men, he crossed the river Sambre, thirty miles south of Brussels, the British headquarters, and near to the Prussians. The news did not reach Wellington till late in the day. That night there was a ball in Brussels at the British ambassador's. Wellington issued his orders for the advance, and then went to the ball to prevent alarm. The officers slipped quietly away to join their regiments, and at midnight the advance began.

The campaign was short and sharp. On June 16 two battles were fought. Napoleon sent Ney with a third of his forces to stop Wellington at Quatre Bras (the "Four Arms" or Cross-Roads) on the Brussels road. As many of Wellington's troops had a long way to march, they came up very gradually, and for a time were hard pressed, but by evening they drove Ney back. Meanwhile, five miles off, at Ligny, Napoleon defeated Blücher. His plan seemed succeeding. He now sent a third of his army, under a general called Grouchy, after Blücher, who, he thought, was retreating to the Rhine; with the rest he was

confident of beating Wellington. But Blücher was not as badly beaten as Napoleon thought; he had met Wellington, who had ridden over from Quatre Bras to Ligny, and he had agreed to stand by him. On the 17th Wellington retreated, followed by Napoleon, and took up a position

WATERLOO CAMPAIGN, 1815



half-way to Brussels; and Blücher, who had eluded his pursuers, also marched northwards, and halted ten miles away to the east. Heavy rain had come on, and the armies passed an uncomfortable night.

Battle of Waterloo, June 18, 1815.—By the morning of the famous Sunday, June 18, the rain had ceased; and when Napoleon saw the foe still in position, he exclaimed,

"At last I have them, these English." "You do not know the English," said Soult, who was with him; "they will die where they stand." Napoleon, still thinking Blücher was far away, expected an easy victory. Wellington's object was to hold his ground till Blücher came up. Had he had his Peninsular army with him he would have been happier; he did not even feel sure of the newly-levied British. Fortunately Napoleon did not begin the attack till the middle of the morning, waiting apparently for the ground to dry. There was no manœuvring at Waterloo; it was simply a struggle of endurance. Napoleon had a great superiority in cavalry and artillery, and made persistent attacks on various parts of the position, now with infantry, now with cavalry, accompanied by terrible volleys of artillery. The British cavalry made some fine charges, but suffered great loss. Some Belgians, when ordered to charge, turned rein and rode off to Brussels with the news that Wellington was beaten. There was already great alarm there, and many English now prepared to fly to the coast.

For three hours the splendid French cavalry swept over the centre of the allied army, trying to break the squares which the infantry formed to resist them. Wellington and the other generals had to take refuge in the squares. "Stand fast, ninety-fifth," he said to one regiment; "what will they think of us in England?" Not a square was broken, and at last their fire finally drove off the cavalry.

Wellington was terribly anxious; he kept looking at his watch, hoping that night or Blücher might come. As the afternoon wore on, the Prussians were approaching in force on the French right. Napoleon at first thought they were Grouchy's force; but Grouchy was kept at bay ten miles off by a Prussian division. The Prussians had a terribly hard march over the miry country roads, but Blücher cheered them on. "Remember," he said, "I have promised Wellington." As the numbers of the Prussians increased, Napoleon's chance of victory

vanished. But he would not retreat, for a retreat meant ruin to him.

He still had his Guards in reserve, who always dealt the final blow; and, as a last chance, he hurled them against the centre in two massive columns. But with their ranks rent with musketry, and charged front and flank by the British Guards and another regiment, they reeled and fell back, and the cry arose, "The Guards are beaten." Wellington then gave the word; the whole army advanced; the French were swept away in utter rout, and Napoleon rode from the field. Wellington met Blücher, and arranged that the Prussians should continue the pursuit through the night. Many of the French went off to their homes. Of the 125,000 who crossed the Sambre, only 50,000 could ever be collected again. The Allies, including the Prussians, lost in the battle 30,000 killed and wounded.

Such was the famous battle that at last ended the "Great War." The British call it Waterloo, from Wellington's headquarters; the French call it Mont St. Jean, from a nearer village; the Prussians, Belle Alliance, the farmhouse where Blücher met Wellington.

Second Abdication of Napoleon. He is sent to St. Helena.—When the beaten Emperor reached Paris, he was forced by the Assembly to abdicate, and left the city. Paris, after a little fighting, surrendered to the Allies. Louis XVIII. came back; and Napoleon, fearing the vengeance of the Prussians, tried to take ship at Rochefort for the United States. But the British cruisers were too watchful; so he had to throw himself on the mercy of Britain, and surrendered to the captain of the warship *Bellerophon*. On the voyage to Plymouth, this extraordinary man won all hearts by his charm of manner. He was astonished, too, at the order and discipline on the man-of-war. "I see now," he said, "why the English win at sea."

The Ministry hardly knew what to do with Napoleon, to make sure he did no more mischief. Finally, they sent him to the island of St. Helena, which the East India

Company used as a half-way station to India. Lying in mid-ocean, it gave him no chance of escape.

France after Waterloo.—In two months there were nearly a million invaders over the frontiers, thirsting to avenge their former sufferings upon helpless France. But peace was at once made. France lost none of her old territory; but an army of occupation, 150,000 strong, one-third British, was to hold the north-east for five years. She had also to restore all the splendid works of art, pictures and statues, which Napoleon had carried off from foreign countries to adorn the museums of Paris. Utterly exhausted by the war, France was for a time contented under the restored monarchy, for she now had parliamentary government. But she did not forget Napoleon and all his glories.

Wellington and the Army of Occupation.—The Duke of Wellington was left in command of the army of occupation, a difficult position for him. He showed the greatness of his character by setting himself against the vengeful feelings which the Allies naturally had, owing to the sufferings inflicted on them by Napoleon. For instance, he prevented Blücher from blowing up the Bridge of Jena at Paris (which commemorated the great defeat of Prussia in 1806) by posting a sentry on it. This made him at first popular; but he annoyed the Court by trying to save Ney, who was shot by the French Government for his desertion to Napoleon, and he gave special offence by agreeing to the surrender of the art treasures. One day, at a reception at the palace, the generals all turned away and refused to speak to him. The King tried to smooth matters over. "Do not distress yourself, sire," replied Wellington, "it is not the first time French marshals have turned their backs on me." Gradually he became so disliked that it was a relief to him when, at his own suggestion, the Allies decided to withdraw the army of occupation after three years.

Wellington returned to England, and joined the Ministry

in a military post, never again to command an army in the field. He fought his last and greatest battle at the age of forty-six; it was, indeed, his earnest hope that he might never have to fight another.

Europe after the War.—The settlement of Europe, made by the Congress of Vienna, was a very bad settlement. Napoleon's conquests had at least swept away the remains of feudalism, but the allied sovereigns, in their hatred of the Revolution, restored the old state of things; and, as they required compensation for their losses in the war, they rearranged territories without the slightest regard for the feelings of the inhabitants. The Spaniards and Germans, who had fought for freedom against the foreign oppressor, found themselves again ground down under the old governments. In Italy, which under the French had been growing into a nation, Lombardy was given back, with Venice, to Austria; and not only were the Kings of Sardinia and Naples restored, but all the petty rulers too, while the Pope got back his territory. Prussia got a large addition of territory in Germany. Russia obtained most of Poland, and Finland, which had belonged to Sweden. Sweden was given Norway, which had been for centuries united with Denmark. Belgium was given up by Austria and joined with Holland under the Prince of Orange, who was made King of the Netherlands. Finally, the sovereigns of Austria, Prussia, and Russia made a "Holy Alliance" to protect religion against the Revolution; but it was really to protect their power and crush revolutionary ideas among their subjects.

For a time, while Europe still lay exhausted from the long war, all went well. Then from time to time there was trouble in Europe till the nations won their freedom. Spain and Germany gained constitutional government; Italy is a nation; Belgium separated again from Holland in William IV.'s reign, Norway from Sweden in Edward VII.'s, and Poland and Finland from Russia after the Great War.

Britain after Waterloo. Distress and Discontent.—Though Britain had not suffered in the Great War as much as other nations, thanks to her navy, it had cost her many thousands of lives, and trebled the National Debt, which was now over £800,000,000, an enormous sum, considering that the population was less than half what it is now. Moreover, it had caused great distress among labouring classes, and stopped all reform. On the other hand, it had raised Britain to a higher position than she had ever held before, and given her the unchallenged dominion of the seas.

As chief compensation for her exertions, she now kept the Cape of Good Hope, paying Holland £6,000,000 for it. It was useful as a half-way station to India and Australia, and was the beginning of our South African dominions. But, as you will read, we have had great trouble in South Africa. Britain also kept Malta, now our great Mediterranean naval station, Mauritius, and some West Indian islands taken from France.

The Tory Ministry would not join the Holy Alliance, which was hated by the people, but they had troubles of their own at home. You might think that with the return of peace all would have gone happily. This was not the case. There was still great distress and discontent among the labouring classes, for several causes. As you were told, the "Continental Blockade" was good for our trade; but when the war ended trade declined, partly owing to the exhaustion on the Continent. Consequently wages fell, and there was much unemployment—which was increased by disbanded sailors and soldiers wanting work, owing to the reduction of the army and navy. Then, too, the price of wheat, which had been terribly high during the war, one year reaching 170 shillings a quarter (more than five times what it was in 1914), was not allowed to fall as much as it might, for farmers and landowners liked the high prices. For their sake there had been for some time a tax on foreign wheat, when the price fell to 60 shillings; and

now Parliament imposed the tax when the price was 80 shillings. As there was a bad harvest the year after the peace, there was again great distress among the poor.

Finally, there were the old revolutionary ideas excited by the French Revolution. The labouring classes were demanding a complete or "radical" reform of Parliament that would give them a vote; hence arose the party name of Radicals. Reform was revived by Whigs, but it was always rejected in the Commons; for the Tories, still remembering what had happened in France, thought that any Reform of Parliament would have the same result in England. The rioting that occurred only increased their alarm; and instead of trying to find remedies, the Ministry passed severe laws to repress disorder. Many of the leaders were imprisoned for "sedition," and the discontent was increased.

In 1819 there was an open-air meeting of over thirty thousand persons at Manchester, in a place called St. Peter's Fields, to demand Reform of Parliament. Such a meeting nowadays is always permitted, but the magistrates sent some cavalry to arrest the leader. This caused a disturbance. The cavalry charged the crowd, who fled in terror, and four or five persons were killed and about a hundred injured. This was known as the "Peterloo" massacre, a name made up in derision from Waterloo, as if the Ministry regarded it as an equally glorious victory.

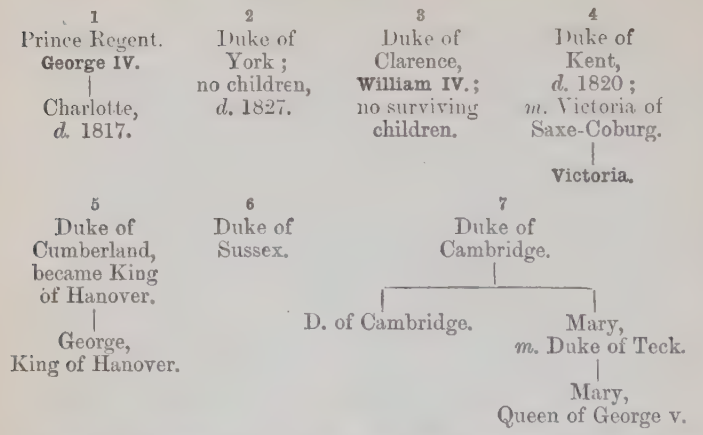
Insanity of George III., 1811. The Prince Regent. His Character and unhappy Marriage.—George III. never knew of the great triumph of his kingdom. More than once during the earlier years of his reign he had had short attacks of insanity, and in 1811, soon after he celebrated his jubilee, his mind finally gave way. For the last nine years of his life, the poor old King, blind as well as insane, dragged out his existence in Windsor Castle, his only relief being in music. Very occasionally he had brief flashes of sanity; and once he was seen on his knees, with streaming tears, praying God that his great affliction might pass away.

George III. in the fiftieth year of his reign.
He is wearing the old-fashioned full dress, with three-cornered hat, wig and sword.

During this time the Prince of Wales ruled as Regent. Gay and handsome, the Prince of Wales had been brought up too strictly by the King and Queen ; and, when he grew up, he revolted against the dull respectability of their Court. He plunged into a life of dissipation and gambling, consorted with disreputable companions, and was a great friend of Fox and Sheridan. Then, like the former Princes of Wales of his line, he took up the Whig cause against his father's minister, Pitt. But his friendship for the Whigs was only personal, and by this time Fox's death had made a difference. He did not like some of the present Whig leaders, and, when he became Regent, he made no change in the Ministry. In 1795 he had married his cousin, Caroline of Brunswick; but he disliked her, for she had been badly brought up, and, after the birth of his daughter Charlotte, had separated from her, and gone back to his old life. When he became Regent, the Princess of Wales went abroad.

Death of the Princess Charlotte, 1817. Marriages of the Royal Princes. Birth of Queen Victoria, 1819.—The Princess Charlotte had been brought up apart from her parents. She was of a lively disposition, and was beloved by the nation as its future Queen. The year after Waterloo she married Leopold, son of the Duke of Saxe-Coburg, but died the next year. George III. had a large family, seven sons and six daughters. But, except the Prince Regent and the Duke of York, now a childless widower, none of the princes had married, and the only grandchildren of the King were the children of his daughters, who had married German princes. So four royal princes, the Dukes of Clarence, Kent, Cumberland and Cambridge, all middle-aged men, now married wives. They were all Germans ; and the Duchess of Kent was sister to Prince Leopold. She was the mother of Queen Victoria, who was born in 1819.

THE SONS OF GEORGE III.



Death of George III., 1820, and of Napoleon, 1821.—In January 1820 the poor old afflicted King died, in his eighty-second year, and the most eventful reign in our history came to an end.

George III. was soon followed by Napoleon. For nearly six years the great Emperor lived on St. Helena, dreaming of his wonderful career, of which he dictated a memoir, and quarrelling with the governor—a sad picture of fallen greatness. To the last the British Government somewhat ungenerously ignored his Imperial title: he was simply General Bonaparte. His health, already failing, grew worse, owing to his inactive life, and he died in 1821 at the age of fifty-two. He was buried in his distant isle of banishment; but twenty years later, when the old hatred had died away, by the permission of Britain, a French warship took his remains back to Paris, where they were placed in a splendid tomb.

SUMMARY.

Napoleon seizes Portugal and Spain; Joseph Bonaparte King of Spain; the "Peninsular War"—The French abandon Portugal —Joseph driven from Madrid—Napoleon in Spain; utter defeat of Spaniards—Moore's campaign; his retreat to Corunna, and death.

Austrian War; Napoleon leaves Spain—Sir Arthur Wellesley (Wellington) returns to Portugal; victories at Oporto and Talavera—Defeat of the Austrians; our mismanaged expedition against Antwerp.

French invasion of Portugal; the lines of Torres Vedras—Indecisive campaign—The tide turns; victory of Salamanca—Napoleon's invasion of Russia, and disastrous retreat—Wellington's advance —Battle of Vittoria; he crosses the Pyrenees—The German War of Liberation and defeat of Napoleon—Invasion of France, and restoration of the Bourbons—The war with the United States.

Napoleon escapes from Elba; the "Hundred Days"; Waterloo— After Waterloo; the "Holy Alliance" and suppression of liberty—Distress and discontent in Britain; demand for reform.

George III.'s insanity—The Prince Regent; his character and marriage—Death of Napoleon in St. Helena.

DATES.

1808. Battle of Vimeiro.

1809. (January). Battle of Corunna.

1812. Battle of Salamanca. Napoleon's Invasion of Russia.

1813. Battles of Vittoria and Leipsic.

1814. Invasion of France.

1815. Waterloo.

CHAPTER LVII

George IV., 1820-1830

Unpopularity of the Throne. Queen Caroline.—George IV. was fifty-seven when he became really King. This elderly dissipated man of fashion, who prided himself on being the "first gentleman in Europe," but cared little for his duties as King, was not a monarch to make the throne respected, and never has loyalty sunk lower in England. His reign began with a scandal. Queen Caroline, who had been roaming about Europe in a wild reckless life, came back to England to take her rightful place. George would have nothing to do with her; he would not allow her name to be in the Prayer Book; and he now induced the Ministry to bring in a Bill for her divorce. This cruel action caused great indignation. The Whigs especially took up the Queen's cause; and the London mob rallied round her. The majority in the Lords for the Bill was so small, that the Ministry did not dare to go on with it in the Commons. When George IV. was crowned in the summer of 1821, Caroline tried to enter Westminster Abbey, and was kept out by force. Soon afterwards the unhappy lady died of a broken heart.

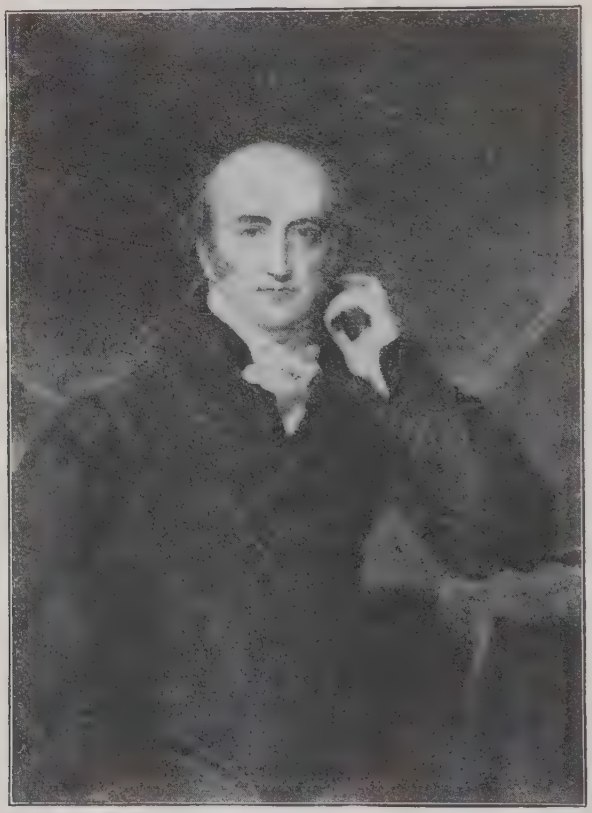
The Cato Street Conspiracy, 1820. Decline of Discontent. Canning becomes Foreign Secretary again.—At the very beginning of the reign a few revolutionists—thirteen—made a mad and wicked plot to murder the ministers when they were all dining together, and then set up a republic. Fortunately one of the number betrayed them, and they were surprised in a stable in Cato Street, from

which the conspiracy was named. After a fight, in which one of the police was killed, some were arrested; others escaped, but were mostly caught afterwards. In the end, four were hanged and five were transported.

George IV.

There was no sympathy with the plot among the lower orders. In fact, during the next few years, as trade improved and harvests were good, the discontent grew less. Men of more liberal ideas were admitted into the Ministry, and the severe laws against disorder were

repealed. One of the new ministers was Canning. He became Foreign Secretary in place of his old enemy, Lord Castlereagh, who had been so bitterly attacked for not



Mansell, photo.]

George Canning.

opposing the Holy Alliance enough, that his mind had given way and he had committed suicide. Another was Robert Peel, a future leader of the Tory party, who became

Home Secretary. Canning was a liberal-minded man, like his old leader Pitt. Though still opposed to Reform of Parliament, he was in favour of the Catholic Claims, while most of the ministers, including Wellington and Peel, were against them. As Foreign Secretary, too, he took sides strongly against the Holy Alliance; and from this time Britain was the champion of freedom in Europe against despotism. But at home Canning was against Reform of Parliament.

Revolt of Greece against Turkey, 1821. The "Eastern Question." Battle of Navarino, 1827.—In the second year of the reign, a revolt of the Greeks against Turkey started what is called the "Eastern Question," which has ever since troubled Europe. The "question" was what was to be done about the Turks, who, ever since the Austrians under Prince Eugene had driven them back out of Hungary, had gradually been growing weaker, but still ruled over many Christian peoples. Austria had ceased to trouble herself about them. Their great enemy was now Russia, which had begun to attack Turkey towards the end of the last century, and had pushed on her frontier towards the Danube. Russia belongs to the Greek, or Eastern Church, which broke off from the Western Church in old days; and the Christian subjects of Turkey are of the same faith, being the survivors of the old Eastern Roman Empire. So Russia was naturally their champion. There was, of course, a strong feeling that Christians should be delivered from the cruel Mahomedan rule, and several Englishmen went out to help the Greeks, including the great poet, Lord Byron, who died in Greece of fever.

But European statesmen were afraid that if Russia overthrew Turkey, she would seize Constantinople, and so become too powerful. Canning, indeed, hoped to secure freedom from Greece without a war between Russia and Turkey, and so persuaded France and Russia to join with Britain. But Turkey would not give way. At last

the three fleets were ordered to stop the Turkish fleet from doing any harm; the result was a battle in the Bay of Navarino, on the west of Greece, in which the Turkish fleet was destroyed.

Death of Canning, 1827. War between Russia and Turkey; Greece freed from Turkey, 1829.—By this time Canning was dead. He had become Prime Minister early in the year, owing to the death of Lord Liverpool. But Wellington, Peel and other strong Tories refused to serve under him, and, worn out by the difficulties of his position, he died. After one of his colleagues had tried to carry on the Ministry, Wellington was made Prime Minister; and Peel led the House of Commons.

Wellington would not help the Greeks any more, so after all Russia made war on Turkey, and beat her. But her army had suffered so much in the war that she was content with securing the independence of Greece, which was made into a little kingdom with a Bavarian prince as king. As a nation, the Greeks disappointed their friends; they have little of the blood of the ancient Greeks in their veins.

The Duke of Wellington as Prime Minister.—Wellington's Prime-Ministership was the least successful part of his career. He did not understand that a new generation was growing up with more liberal ideas, and that the fear of revolution was dying out. He fought these ideas, it has been said, as he fought the French in Spain, holding his position as long as he could, and then retreating. But in politics he found no lines of Torres Vedras. He had no personal ambition for office, only holding it as his duty to his sovereign; his great principle was that the King's Government must be carried on.

One of his first acts was to allow a Bill to be passed repealing the Test and Corporation Acts, which, as you read in Charles II.'s reign, compelled all office-holders to take the communion in church. He at first opposed the Bill, but finding a large majority of the Commons in favour

of it, he gave way. The author of the Bill was a young Whig, Lord John Russell. He was a younger son of the Duke of Bedford, and an enthusiastic Whig, like Lord William Russell, who gave his life for the cause of freedom under Charles II. The repeal of the Test and Corporation Acts was the beginning of real religious liberty in Britain, and of the career of Lord John Russell, who was a great Whig statesman in the middle of the century.

Wellington passes Catholic Emancipation. Daniel O'Connell. —Soon after this the "Canningites," as Canning's adherents were called, left the Ministry and joined the Whigs. Then came Wellington's great difficulty, that of the "Catholic Claims." There happened to be an election in Ireland in the county Clare, and O'Connell, who was a Roman Catholic, stood and was elected. He had founded a Catholic Association, which was more powerful in Ireland than the Government; and Wellington and Peel came to the conclusion that, if the demand of the Catholics was not granted, there would be an armed rising, so he brought in a Bill for Catholic Emancipation. The Irish Protestants, the English clergy and the extreme Tories, were furious. George IV. was at first as obstinate as his father had been; but Wellington forced his consent by threatening to resign, and carried the Bill by the aid of the Whigs.

Catholic Emancipation did not cure the discontent in Ireland, as it might have done if George III. had originally allowed it. The Irish felt it had been granted not as an act of justice, but because there was no help for it. They had many other grievances, and O'Connell, now known as the "Liberator," and also, from his personal appearance, as "Big Dan," began to agitate for a complete "Repeal of the Union." Moreover, Wellington had shattered the old Tory party: the opponents of the Bill abused him and Peel as traitors. But they dared not overthrow him, for, if Whigs came into power, the first thing they would do would be to bring in Reform of Parliament.

Death of George IV. The Princess Victoria.—Such was the state of things when George IV. died unlamented in June 1830. The Duke of York, the second son of

Mansell, photo.]

Daniel O'Connell.

George III., had died three years before. The Duke of Clarence, who now became King as William IV., had lost

his only two children in infancy; so the little Princess Victoria, now eleven years old, was next in succession to the throne. The Duchess of Kent, a good and noble woman, had had a difficult time. The Duke had died in debt, and had been on bad terms with his elder brothers owing to his political opinions, for he was a Whig and a supporter of the Catholic Claims; and she shared his

Princess Victoria at the age of eight.

views. So George IV. would not help her. But she found a protector in her brother, Prince Leopold, who had remained in England after the death of the Princess Charlotte. He too was a man of liberal sentiments, and of such high character and ability that he had been offered and refused the throne of Greece, and later, as you will read, accepted another crown.

Prince Leopold not only helped the Duchess of Kent in her money troubles, but also watched tenderly over his little fatherless niece, and, as she grew up, advised her with a view to her future position. The Princess repaid him with devoted affection, and corresponded intimately with him till his death in the middle of her reign. The nation owes a great debt to Prince Leopold for his influence over its Queen in her young days. After a time George IV. softened towards his niece. When seven years old, she was invited to Windsor. She tells us that she remembers how he welcomed her with the words, "Give me your little paw," and gave her a miniature of himself set in diamonds, which she is wearing in the picture. She describes him as gouty, but dignified and charming in manners.

SUMMARY.

Prosecution of Queen Caroline—Cato Street Conspiracy—Canning becomes Foreign Minister—Greece rebels against Turkey; the "Eastern Question"; battle of Navarino—Canning Prime Minister; split in the Tories; his death—The Duke of Wellington Prime Minister; repeal of the Test and Corporation Acts, Catholic Emancipation—The Princess Victoria

DATE.

1829. Catholic Emancipation.

CHAPTER LVIII

William IV., 1830-1837
The Victory of Reform

William IV.—William IV. was nearly sixty-five when he became King. In his early days he had served in the navy; but he had never been in a battle. He was known as the "Sailor King," and was a bluff, hearty man, popular but hardly respected, with little ability, and some of the obstinacy of his father. Like George IV., he disliked the Duchess of Kent, and could not bear to think that, if he died before the Princess Victoria came of age, the Duchess would be Regent.

Revolution in Paris. Defeat and Resignation of the Duke of Wellington, 1830.—The accession of William IV. was followed almost at once by an insurrection in Paris, in which Charles X., brother of Louis XVIII., lost his throne. A republic, however, was not set up; but Louis Philippe, his cousin, Duke of Orleans, was made king, with the title of "King of the French," and with the Republican Tricolour, instead of the Royalist Lilies, as the national flag. The French Revolution caused great excitement in Britain; the Reformers were delighted, while the Tories were still more alarmed at the danger of Reform. It also led to a rising in Belgium against the union with Holland, which will be heard of later.

During the excitement a general election took place, in which Wellington's Ministry lost ground. When Parliament met in November, Wellington was asked by Earl Grey, the Whig leader, what he intended to do about

Reform ; he replied that he had not the slightest intention of doing anything; in fact, he thought the Constitution perfect. This turned the Whigs against him, and the Ministry was beaten in the Commons by a majority of

Mansell, photo.]

William IV.

twenty-nine. Wellington resigned. The Tory rule at last came to an end, and the chance of the Whigs had come.

The new Ministry contained several Canningites, who had become Reformers, and henceforth were counted as

Whigs. The Prime Minister was Earl Grey, of a great Northumberland family which is still represented among our leading politicians, an elderly man, who had been in the Commons from 1786 till he succeeded to the title. Earl Grey had been a friend of Fox and a strong opponent of Pitt, and had held office in the Ministry of All the Talents. Thirty-three years before, he had brought forward a Reform Bill in the House of Commons, only to be beaten by an overwhelming majority. Now he was to try again. He had great difficulties before him, though he knew that the country was strongly in his favour. The House of Lords was now strongly Tory, for numbers of Tory peers had been made during the last fifty years. And it was doubtful how the Bill would be received in the Commons, for members were more independent then than at the present day. On the other hand, William IV. was known to be in its favour.

How Acts of Parliament are made.—To understand the famous struggle over the Reform Bill, it must be explained how Bills are passed into law. A Bill has to pass both Houses before it can receive the Royal Assent. It goes through the same course in both Houses, and it does not matter in which House it is introduced first. After a Bill has been explained by the minister or member in charge, and debated, the question is put that it "be read a first time." This is very rarely opposed. After its "first reading," it is printed and distributed to the members, and time is allowed for them to study it thoroughly. Then comes the "second reading" debate, and the real opposition, if any, begins. If the "second reading" is voted, the Bill is then discussed in detail, clause by clause, and alterations called "amendments" can be made. This is called going through Committee; it is a dangerous time, as members who approve of the Bill as a whole may dislike certain points. Lastly, the Bill in its final shape has to be read a third time in order to pass.

The First Reform Bill, 1831. It is defeated in Committee in the Commons.—When Parliament met again in February 1831, the Reform Bill was introduced into the Commons by Lord John Russell, who was in the Ministry. Every one was on the tiptoe of expectation wondering what it would be like. He explained that some sixty small boroughs would lose both their members, and thirty others would lose one; that members would be given to Manchester, Birmingham, Leeds, and other towns that now had no members, about thirty in number, and additional members to about half the counties, and to four districts of London; that the "franchise," or right of voting, would be the same throughout the country, and would depend on the possession or occupation of a house of a certain value in towns, and of land in counties. This would add about half a million voters, but would exclude the working classes. Finally he read out the list of the condemned boroughs, which was received with loud laughter at the expense of their unfortunate members.

The Bill was more sweeping than was expected, even by some of the Whigs; but the Radicals were disappointed. The debate lasted seven days, and no less than seventy members made speeches. The Tories declared that it was the beginning of a revolution in which the throne, the Church, and the House of Lords would be overthrown. The Whigs declared it would strengthen the Constitution. A Radical, who had presided at the "Peterloo" meeting, said that every man ought to have a vote; he declared, amid angry interruptions, that at that meeting loyal subjects assembled to petition for this very Reform had been "chopped to pieces" and wounded by an "infuriated yeomanry with newly sharpened sabres"; that he himself had been imprisoned in a solitary dungeon; and finally, that neither he nor any Radicals he knew of wanted to overturn the throne. In the end, the Bill was allowed to pass its first reading. A fortnight later, after another two days' debate, the second reading was carried, amid

great excitement, by a majority of only one—three hundred and one to three hundred. But when the Bill went into "Committee," the Ministry were defeated by eight on a point of detail.

Parliament dissolved.—There was no use going on with the Bill in the present House of Commons, so Earl Grey, knowing that the country was on his side, persuaded the King to dissolve Parliament, though it had only lasted a few months. William IV. was himself against the dissolution, but he was so enthusiastically cheered as he drove down to Parliament that he was quite pleased. One man shouted out, "Turn out the rogues, your Majesty." The Tories were furious at the dissolution, and angry debates were going on in both Houses when the King arrived. Sir Robert Peel was denouncing the Ministry. He was usually calm and self-restrained, but on this occasion a member said he never in his life saw a man in such a passion. While he was speaking, the cannons, fired in St. James's Park according to custom as the King passed, were heard, and each discharge was greeted with laughter and cheers by the Whigs. When the King arrived, the debates were stopped; the Commons were summoned to the House of Lords, and the King dissolved Parliament.

The Whigs win the General Election. The Reform Bill carried in the Commons and defeated in the Lords.—There was triumphant joy throughout the country, and the towns were all illuminated. In London the mob broke the windows of some houses in the West End which were not illuminated. One of these was Apsley House, the town house of the Duke of Wellington, whose opposition to reform had made him intensely unpopular. The cry of the Reformers was "The Bill, the whole Bill, and nothing but the Bill." There was naturally much rioting, for the people were greatly excited; and in spite of all the owners of the small boroughs and the great landowners, the Whigs obtained a majority of over a

hundred, including the Radicals and Irish "Repealers." There was now no question that the Bill would pass the Commons; all the Tories could do was to delay it as much as possible in Committee. It took altogether three months to pass, from June 24 to September 22. The question now was "What will the Lords do?" It was soon answered. A fortnight later, led by Wellington, they rejected the Bill, but only by a majority of forty.

Indignation in the Country. Rioting.—Eagerly had the voting been expected by the nation, and deep was the disappointment at the result. *The Times* and other Whig papers published angry articles. In London and other towns the shops were shut, and the bells tolled muffled peals. The City Council met and voted confidence in the Ministry; and all over the country there were meetings denouncing the Lords. Rioting too began again, which made the position of the Ministry very difficult. In London the mob hooted the Tories, and cheered the Whigs as they went to Parliament. Some Tory peers were mobbed, and also the Duke of Cumberland. Apsley House was again attacked, and there was a plot to attack Wellington himself on his way down to Walmer Castle at Deal, which he held as "Warden of the Cinque Ports." He, however, took the precaution to start earlier than expected, and so made his journey in safety. But he travelled with loaded pistols and an armed servant on the box of his carriage, and was met on the way by a mounted escort of country gentlemen.

In Edinburgh, Glasgow and other towns, there were wild scenes. In the country some noblemen's seats were attacked, and Nottingham Castle, belonging to the Duke of Newcastle, was burnt.

The Bristol Riots.—Worst of all were the Bristol Riots. Just at this time a leading opponent of the Bill in the Commons, who was Recorder of Bristol, had to go there to hold the Assizes. The Bristol mob declared they would not allow it. Some cavalry were sent into the town,

and special constables were enrolled. The Recorder was hooted as he drove to the Assize Court; and in the court the disturbance was so great that Assizes were adjourned from that day, which was Saturday, till Monday, and the Recorder took refuge in the Mansion House. The mob now attacked the Mansion House. The officer commanding the dragoons lost his head, and, instead of charging the mob, tried to reason with them; and the Mayor, who was a Reformer, did the same. The police and special constables were overwhelmed after fierce fighting. The mob broke into the Mansion House, and the Recorder had to leave Bristol disguised as a postillion. At last the dragoons were allowed to charge, and scattered the mob.

On Sunday the rioting began again. The commanding officer was again weak; and the mob burned the Mansion House, the Bishop's Palace, the Custom House, three prisons and forty private houses, and several persons perished in the flames. On Monday the docks were in danger of being burnt, but another regiment of dragoons arrived, and quiet was at last restored. Four ringleaders were afterwards hanged, and the town had to pay £70,000 for the damage. All this disorder was awkward for the Ministry, determined as they were to carry the Bill. Indeed, they had to stop the meetings of Radical Clubs owing to the revolutionary speeches made at them.

How the Reform Bill passed the Lords, 1832.—A third time Lord John Russell brought his Bill into the Commons, and by the end of March 1832 it was through again. By this time a party of Tory peers thought that some Bill ought to be passed. They were called the "Waverers," and through them the second reading was passed by a majority of nine. But in Committee the ministers were beaten; and the Bill could only be passed by making new peers, as the Tories had done in 1711. But now a far larger number would be wanted; and, as the King refused, Earl Grey resigned. Sir Robert Peel refused to form a Ministry. Wellington, feeling it his duty to help his King in his

difficulty, tried for a fortnight in vain. Meanwhile petitions were pouring in from London and all the towns for the Bill, and a revolutionary party were actually preparing for an armed rising. William IV. thought they would make the Whig Duchess of Kent Regent, and said, "I do not care; I will defend London, and raise the royal standard, and the Duchess and Princess may come in if they can." Fortunately for the Princess, if the revolutionists ever really had such a plan, the King gave way in the end and recalled Earl Grey; but to avoid the creation of peers, he wrote private letters to the Duke of Wellington and other Tory peers, requesting them not to vote against the Bill. About a hundred stayed away, and the Reform Bill passed the House of Lords in June, only twenty-two peers voting against it. Afterwards, similar Bills were passed for Scotland and Ireland.

Result of the Reform Bill.—At the end of the year, when the new lists of voters had been drawn up, a general election was held; and, as might be expected, the Ministry won an overwhelming victory. Over five hundred of their supporters were elected against only a hundred and fifty Tories. But the fears of the anti-Reformers proved groundless. The control of the country had merely passed from the land-owning classes—the nobles and gentry—to the trading and professional classes—the merchants, lawyers, doctors, shopkeepers, and clerks. They were just as opposed to revolution as the gentry, and wanted no further change in the Constitution. The recent struggle soon passed out of men's minds. Wellington's opposition to Reform was forgotten: his old services and his high character were again recognised, and for the rest of his life "The Duke," as he was generally called, was the most honoured and respected man in the country. He was never again Prime Minister; for, to his great relief, Sir Robert Peel was now recognised as the Tory leader. Sir Robert Peel was a more moderate statesman than the Duke, and, as recent events had made the name Tory

unpopular, he and other moderate members of the party began to call themselves "Conservatives," that is, "preservers" of the Constitution; whereupon some of the Whigs took the name of "Liberals," a French word meaning "champions of freedom."

Earl Grey succeeded by Lord Melbourne, 1834. Defeat of the King's Attempt to bring in the Tories.—In spite of his great triumph, Earl Grey found his position very difficult. His huge majority in the Commons was divided into loyal Liberals, Radicals who wanted more sweeping changes, and the Irish followers of O'Connell. The King was against him, and the Ministry was losing its popularity in the country, which, exhausted by the Reform struggle, wanted a rest. The chief difficulty of the moment was about Ireland, where the Roman Catholics objected to paying tithes to the Protestant Established Church. Five members of the Ministry, three of them Canningites, resigned and went over to the Tories, because they thought Earl Grey was not firm enough. Soon after, wearied with the struggle, Earl Grey himself resigned. He was succeeded by Lord Melbourne, a Canningite; but at the end of the year, when Parliament was not sitting, the King unexpectedly dismissed the Ministry, and made Sir Robert Peel Prime Minister. He was at Rome at the time, and the Duke carried on the Government, managing himself the three principal offices for three weeks, till Sir Robert Peel arrived.

A few weeks before Lord Melbourne's dismissal, the Houses of Parliament were destroyed by fire; and so the Reform of Parliament was followed by the disappearance of the building in which the unreformed Parliament had sat. The fire was caused by the burning of a number of old "tallies," notched pieces of wood used in former times as receipts for revenue. The Lords and Commons were housed for several years in other parts of the Palace of Westminster; and the plans for the new Parliament House were not settled till the next reign.

The old Houses of Parliament in the reign of George IV.

Sir Robert Peel could not, of course, govern with the present House of Commons, so there was a general election in which the Tories won a hundred and fifty seats. But that did not give them a majority, and in the spring of 1835, when Parliament met, Sir Robert Peel was defeated and forced to resign, and the King had to accept Lord Melbourne after all. This is the last time the sovereign has dismissed a Ministry. He still has the power to do so, but if he used it now there would be a terrible outcry, and he would be denounced as acting "unconstitutionally."

Lord Melbourne as Prime Minister. Lord John Russell and Lord Palmerston.—With a disunited party and only a small majority, Lord Melbourne had a harder task than Earl Grey. He was not a great statesman nor a great speaker, but a sensible man of winning manners. His policy was to keep his Ministry together and struggle on as best he could. He did struggle on for several years, but all this time the Whigs were growing weaker and weaker. The two most prominent members of the Ministry, both of whom were afterwards Prime Ministers, were Lord John Russell, who had brought in the Reform Bill and now was Home Secretary and leader in the Commons, and Lord Palmerston, an Irish peer sitting in the House of Commons, the Foreign Secretary. His family, the Temples, went over to Ireland in Elizabeth's reign. They had estates in both countries. Lord Palmerston was another of the Canningite Tories who came over to the Whigs. He first entered Parliament in 1807, at the age of twenty-three, and held subordinate posts in the Tory Ministries from 1810 till he resigned with the Canningites in 1828.

These two statesmen were a great contrast. Lord John Russell was an earnest Liberal; he could never forget that he had passed the great Reform Bill, and, later on, wished to pass another. He had plenty of courage, but he lacked the power to be a great leader. He was small of stature, and generally known as "Johnnie Russell." Lord Palmerston, though an Irish peer, was a thorough Englishman

—a man of sound sense, hearty, good-humoured, and fond of sport, which made him very popular. Politics to him were a sort of game, which he played in a downright schoolboy fashion. In home affairs he was, as a Canningite, somewhat of a Tory, especially in his latter years, and was never liked by the Radicals. As Foreign Secretary he stood up stoutly for his country's rights, somewhat too stoutly, some people thought, but, like Canning, he sympathised with nations struggling for freedom. He showed this in the support he gave to the Belgians, who at this time rebelled against their union with Holland. At the same time he had to prevent France from getting hold of Belgium, for Louis Philippe wished to make one of his sons king. In the end the throne was given to Prince Leopold, who took as his second wife Louis Philippe's daughter.

End of William IV.'s Reign. His Quarrel with the Duchess of Kent.—William IV. had to put up as well as he could with the Whig Ministry. His health was failing, which made him at times very irritable. He would angrily oppose them one day, and the next be cordial and give way. The Duchess of Kent, as might be expected, also suffered from his outbursts of temper. He was especially annoyed because she kept the Princess as much as possible from Court, and took her about the country herself, paying visits, and publicly showing her to her future subjects. At last, at a banquet at Windsor, there was a painful scene. The old King gave vent to his feelings, and called the Duchess, who sat by him, "that person." The Princess Victoria burst into tears, and the Duchess, immediately dinner was over, ordered her carriage, and was with difficulty induced to stay.

In the summer of 1837 William IV. grew rapidly worse, and died at the age of nearly seventy-two. A few weeks before, the Princess had become eighteen, the age of majority for a sovereign; so, after all, the Duchess of Kent was never Regent.

SUMMARY.

The Duke of Wellington refuses Reform, and is defeated—Whig Ministry of Earl Grey; the Reform Bill defeated in the Commons—General election and great Whig victory—The Reform Bill defeated in the Lords—Excitement and disturbance in the country; the Bristol Riots—How the Reform Bill finally passed the Lords.

Result of the Bill—Difficulties of the Whigs; Earl Grey resigns—Lord Melbourne succeeds—William IV. dismisses him, but has to take him back—The Whigs growing weaker—Lord Palmerston and his foreign policy—William IV. and the Duchess of Kent.

DATE.

1832. Passing of the Reform Bill.

CHAPTER LIX

From George III. to William IV.
The Coming of the Nineteenth Century

Contrast between the Eighteenth and Nineteenth Centuries.—There can hardly be a greater contrast than between the life, literature, political and social ideas, and even dress, of the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries. It is even greater than the contrast between the England of Elizabeth and of Henry VII. The nineteenth century was a time of progress, of striving towards higher ideals, and of unrest, while the eighteenth century, as you read, had been a time of stagnation and low moral ideals; and with the discovery of steam-power began the extraordinary development of scientific invention which has so altered all the conditions of life.

Of course, the year 1801 no more marks the change than the year 1501 did in the reign of Henry VII. You will see it beginning to work about 1780, just when, curiously enough, Watt was starting his steam-engines. Thus in the first third of George III.'s reign we are still in the "eighteenth century"; the rest of his reign, mainly taken up with the Great War, is a time of change. By the accession of George IV. we are in the "nineteenth century," but even now we must wait for the reign of Victoria for its full development.

Causes of Improvement in Morality and Religion.—You read in a previous chapter how George III. and Queen Charlotte in their Court set a good example to society. Next, the loss of the American colonies, the greatest blow that

had fallen on the country since the loss of France, had a sobering effect. Then came the French Revolution with the September Massacres, the execution of Louis XVI., and the Reign of Terror. These cast quite a gloom over society. When the news of the execution came, the theatres were at once emptied of their audiences. Finally came the Great War, with the alarm of invasion, and the patriotic exertions it called forth had a bracing effect on the upper classes. At the same time, the rejection of Christianity by the French revolutionists roused the religious feelings of the British, and the seed sown by Wesley began to bear fruit. He himself died in 1791, and his followers left the Church and formed the Wesleyan sect. But many of the clergy had been influenced by his teaching, and a party arose in the Church known as the Evangelicals. Though at first looked down upon, they gradually roused the Church from its torpor, and exerted a powerful influence on public opinion, especially in the middle classes.

Higher Social Life.—The efforts of the Evangelicals and the awakening conscience of the nation, gradually worked a great reform in society. Many of them, like the old Puritans, whom they resembled in their religious views, were so shocked by the vices of the day that they regarded all card-playing, theatre-going, and dancing as wicked. But though they went to extremes, they did not, like the Puritans, make oppressive laws, and so they succeeded in effecting a lasting reform. Vice was no longer regarded as respectable; drunkenness in the upper classes began to decline, and in George IV.'s reign temperance societies were started, after an example set by the United States. A crusade was also made against gambling—some ladies of rank were convicted and fined £50 for gambling—and Sunday began to be strictly observed—a good deal more strictly than at the present day.

Higher Sense of Duty towards Inferiors.—Another great work of the Evangelicals was to wake the public conscience to the duties of the upper classes towards the lower, and

of the nation to the heathen and other peoples under its rule. The Religious Tract Society was founded to improve the lower orders; the British and Foreign Bible Society to spread the knowledge of the Bible; and the Church Missionary Society to preach the Gospel in Africa and India. Perhaps the greatest work of the Evangelicals was the abolition of slavery in the British Empire. The great champion of this cause was William Wilberforce, a member of Parliament and a friend of Pitt. Owing to the exertions of Wilberforce, the Ministry of All the Talents abolished the slave trade in 1807; and Lord Grey's Ministry abolished slavery itself in 1833, when £20,000,000 was granted to the owners in compensation. Sad to say, Wilberforce died just too soon to see the completion of his life's work.

Other workers in this movement were Robert Raikes, a printer of Gloucester, who started the first Sunday-schools there in 1780, and John Howard, who by his exertions and writings succeeded in reforming the prisons, which in those days were in a disgraceful state.

The Old Literature. Dr. Johnson and his Friends. In the early years of George III. the great literary figure was Dr. Johnson. He was the last of the great "eighteenth century" writers, and at the time of his death, in 1784, a new spirit was coming in, especially in poetry, and the artificiality of Pope ceased to be the fashion.

Samuel Johnson, born in the reign of Queen Anne, was the son of a Lichfield bookseller. He was educated at country grammar-schools and at Pembroke College, Oxford; and, after some school-mastering, he came up to London at the age of twenty-eight, to make a living by his pen. For several years he had a hard struggle, working mostly as a "hack-writer" for a bookseller, who paid him very badly. But in 1755 he published his great Dictionary, on which he had been engaged for seven years, and so at last made his name; and, as he was a Tory, Lord Bute, in 1762, gave him a pension of £300 a year.

Johnson was now in comfortable circumstances, with a circle of literary and artistic friends. They started a society known as The Club, which used to meet at a tavern. Among the members were the great painter Sir Joshua Reynolds, the actual founder, Burke the statesman, who was also a great writer, Garrick the famous actor, whom Johnson had taught as a boy at Lichfield, Oliver Gold-

Dr. Johnson.

smith, who will be mentioned later, and a Scottish lawyer named James Boswell. "Bozzy," as he was called, was really a most uninteresting commonplace man, but he attached himself to Johnson as a humble admirer, and used to make notes of his sayings and doings, from which, after his death, he wrote his *Life of Samuel Johnson*, the most famous biography ever written. What Johnson

found in Boswell's friendship has always been a puzzle. Among his other friends should be mentioned Miss Hannah More, an Evangelical lady, who wrote mostly religious and moral works. She was a friend also of Wilberforce, and in her old age, of Macaulay the historian. Hannah More is thus a remarkable link between two ages, having been born in the year of the 'Forty-Five, and dying in the reign of William IV.

After obtaining his pension, Johnson did very little literary work. He was lazy by nature, and henceforth he was contented to reign as a literary king. Big, burly, rough and ill-dressed as he was, Johnson was everywhere welcome, and his chief occupation was discussion and argument at The Club and friends' houses. Though at times overbearing in the heat of argument, and disposed to be brutally crushing to persons who, he thought, presumed too much in opposing him, he was really at bottom a good-hearted man. He was strict in his life, and sincerely religious, so his influence was all for good.

Johnson's works, mentioned in the last volume, though highly thought of at the time, are little read now, except by students of literature. There is nothing original about them. His two poems, "London" and "The Vanity of Human Wishes," are imitations of Pope, and adapted from the great Latin satirist Juvenal. His essays are imitations of *The Spectator*, but without its grace and lightness; in fact, he wrote in a heavy, long-winded style, which has been nicknamed "Johnsonese." But as a character in English literary life, Johnson will never be forgotten.

Oliver Goldsmith.—His friend Oliver Goldsmith, who was nearly twenty years younger but died eleven years before him, was the most charming writer of the day. A lovable, happy-go-lucky Irishman; a doctor who, when he tried to practise, could not make any money; extravagant and fond of dress; open-handed and easily imposed upon, he was perpetually in debt. So, like Johnson in

his early life, Goldsmith had to support himself by working for booksellers. He wrote for them histories of England, Rome and Greece, and a Natural History, though he had no special knowledge of these subjects; indeed his Natural History contained absurd mistakes; but his charming style made the books very readable. Goldsmith's real literary work consisted of papers, more lively than Johnson's, poems also better than his, some simple ballads, and the delightful *Vicar of Wakefield*, a story of the trials of a poor country clergyman. He had just finished the story, when Johnson received a note from him that he was in trouble with his landlady because he could not pay his rent. Johnson sent him back a guinea, and then came round. He found Goldsmith with a bottle of wine he had bought with the money. Johnson looked at the story, was charmed by it, and took it at once to a bookseller, who bought it for £60. Goldsmith also wrote two excellent comedies, one of which, *She Stoops to Conquer*, is still acted. He died in 1774 at the age of forty-six. Though his writings are more read now than Johnson's, Goldsmith was very inferior to him in conversation. Garrick once in jest composed the following epitaph on him :—

> "Here lies Nolly Goldsmith, for shortness called Noll,
> Who wrote like an angel, but talked like poor Poll."

The Beginning of New Literature. Cowper and Burns.—When Johnson died, Cowper and Burns, the first of the modern poets, were just beginning to write. Cowper, who was born in 1731, published his famous ballad of *John Gilpin* in 1782, and his long poem *The Task* in 1783. *The Task* is marked by naturalness and simplicity, and is quite free from the influence of Pope.

In Robert Burns, the national poet of Scotland, born in 1759, the "Year of Victories," the change is far more striking. The son of a cottar of Alloway, in Ayrshire, Burns worked for a time as a labourer, and farmed for

a few years in partnership with his brother. But he had a natural gift for poetry; he read such as he could come across, including Pope's *Homer*, and soon began to write himself. Burns's poems were written mostly in the Lowland dialect. Coming straight from the heart, and full of simple melody, they have a wonderful charm. Among them are love-songs, like those of the Cavalier poets, and descriptions of peasant life. He also fiercely assailed hypocrisy and tyranny, and some national songs he wrote made him suspected as a Jacobite. Burns's genius won him a high place among his countrymen; but he led a wild life, and died from dissipation before he was forty.

Effect of the French Revolution on Literature. Wordsworth, Southey and Coleridge.—When the Revolution kindled the enthusiasm for liberty, it was welcomed by three poets—Wordsworth, Southey and Coleridge; but its excesses and the tyranny of Napoleon soon disgusted them, and Southey ended by being a thorough Tory. Still, in them we see the change completed which began with Cowper, especially if we compare them with the Poets Laureate of the day, whose names are now quite forgotten, while their stilted artificial poems were laughed at even then. Simplicity is the mark of Wordsworth, as in his poem "We are Seven," while in his longer poems he moralises on human life. Southey turned from the troublous state of affairs and wrote strange romances of the East, now little read. Among his short poems is the famous "Battle of Blenheim." Coleridge, who wrote little, made his fame by his imaginative *Ancient Mariner*.

Scott and Byron.—Walter Scott, a contemporary and friend of Wordsworth, began to write later. He was a Tory, and, turning his mind from the Revolution to the old days of chivalry in his native Scotland, he composed romantic stories in a stirring ballad metre. The first and most admired was *The Lady of the Lake*, of the days of James v., published in the year of Trafalgar. After some ten years, finding himself eclipsed by a younger

poet, Lord Byron, he turned from verse to prose, and produced the wonderful series of the "Waverley Novels," founded on English, Scottish and foreign history, from the Crusades to the "'Forty-Five." The first novel, *Waverley*, which gave its name to the series, was published in 1814 without the name of the author, and great was the excitement till the mystery was revealed. Scott worked with extraordinary rapidity, composing sometimes more than one novel a year. Scotland has reason to be grateful to him, for he first revealed the country, especially the Highlands, to the ordinary Englishman. The Highlands, which to-day are a favourite resort for tourists, were, before Scott, regarded as a wild and desolate country.

Lord Byron had a deep love of freedom and a splendid gift of poetry, but his dissipated life offended the growing sense of morality in his countrymen. He angrily left England, and finally went to Greece, for which he had a great love, to help her in her rebellion. There he died in 1824, at the age of thirty-six. Byron's great work is *Childe Harold*, an account of his travels through South Europe, with reflections suggested by the various places. It contains the famous description of the ball before the battle of Waterloo. He also wrote ballad-stories of Greece and the Levant, and among his short pieces, the well-known *Destruction of Sennacherib*, written in his early days, best shows his great power of poetic imagery.

Among less important poets of this time, Campbell is still remembered for his short and spirited battle poems, such as the *Battle of the Baltic* (Copenhagen), and Moore for his *Irish Melodies*, especially *The Minstrel Boy*.

Shelley and Keats.—The last and greatest of the Revolution poets was Shelley. He was a revolutionist pure and simple, in revolt against Government, society and Christianity. But he had an exquisite gift of melody, and many of his short poems are among the most beautiful things in our language. Shelley was drowned in a storm

off the coast of Italy, where he was then living, at the age of thirty, in 1822. Equally wonderful as a poet, and still more short-lived, was his friend Keats, who died of consumption the year before him, at the age of twenty-six. Keats's origin was very unpoetic, for he was the son of a livery-stable keeper of London. But he had literary friends, and a translation of Homer awoke the poetry in him. It was from the mythology of old Greece that he took the subject of his great poem, *Endymion*, the shepherd who was loved by the moon-goddess. It is an immortal poem, but its beauties were too strange and daring to please many of his contemporaries.

With the deaths of Byron, Shelley and Keats ended the poetry of the Revolution days, perhaps the most splendid outburst of song in our history. Wordsworth, Coleridge and Southey were still living, but they were no longer writing poetry. Southey was made Poet Laureate in 1813, after Scott had refused the post. He lived into the reign of Victoria, and was succeeded by Wordsworth.

Novelists. Scott and Jane Austen.—There were plenty of novels before Scott, but many of them were trashy nonsense, full of adventures of persecuted heroines. Very different were the works of three ladies—Fanny Burney, Maria Edgeworth, and Jane Austen. Fanny Burney, an "eighteenth century" writer, the daughter of a music-master, wrote *Evelina* anonymously in 1778. It is an amusing and simply told story of the adventures of a country young lady in London, and is still read for its brightness and the light it throws on the life of the day. Her other novels are not so good, as, unfortunately, she took up Johnson's heavy style. Maria Edgeworth wrote at the beginning of the nineteenth century. One of her novels was about Irish life, which Scott said suggested to him the idea of his Scottish novels. Her chief works were moral stories for the education of the young, a subject in which her father took great interest: these are somewhat marred by her want of humour.

Jane Austen lived a quiet country life, and there is nothing exciting in her novels. It is her life-like character-drawing, generally intensely humorous, that gives them their charm, and causes them to be still read with delight. Jane Austen has the humour that Maria Edgeworth lacks; but during her life her reputation was not so high. Of her first three novels, written at the end of the century, when she was little over twenty, only one was accepted by a publisher. He bought it for £10, and then did not think it worth publishing. Some ten years later she began writing again with more success, and then published her early novels. She died in 1817, at the age of forty-two, leaving an unfinished work.

Newspapers and Reviews. "The Times."—From this period date some modern newspapers and reviews. *The Morning Post* started in 1772, *The Times* in 1788, *The Globe* in 1803, and *The Standard* in 1827. They were very small, a single sheet making four pages, and very expensive, owing to the stamp duty there was on newspapers.

The year 1802 saw the starting of the first of our present reviews, the *Edinburgh*, by some Whigs in that city, which led, a few years later, to the founding of a rival Tory review, the *Quarterly*. The most famous writer for the *Edinburgh* was Macaulay, whose essays all appeared in it. It was his first article, on Milton, written in 1825, that made his name, owing to his clear, lively style. The *Quarterly* in its early days is notorious for an article which savagely attacked *Endymion*, and was said, though untruly, to have hastened Keats's death.

Victorian Writers. New Political Ideas.—The mention of Macaulay brings us to a new generation of writers who won their full fame in the reign of Victoria. The Reform Bill day was now approaching; revolutionary excitement had spent its force; instead of violent change, peaceful reform was to be the cure for the national troubles. Macaulay, the son of an anti-slavery Evangelical, was a strong Whig,

with a dislike of the Radicals. While still writing for the *Edinburgh Review*, he entered Parliament and spoke eloquently for the Reform Bill. Of similar opinions was Tennyson who, when quite a young man, published two volumes of short poems, including some of his best work, at the time of the Reform Bill. In three of the poems the new principle appears: England is

> "A land of settled government,
> A land of just and old renown,
> Where Freedom slowly broadens down
> From precedent to precedent."

Very different, however, was the rugged Scotsman Carlyle. He despised parliamentary rule as government by "ballot boxes" and talk; his ideal was the rule of the strong man, such as Cromwell, Julius Cæsar and Napoleon. Still, his influence was good, for he warred fiercely against all shams and hypocrisy.

Finally the great Victorian novelist, Dickens, was publishing his *Pickwick Papers*, in monthly parts, in the last two years of William IV. It is the greatest humorous novel in our language, and at once won popularity.

The Change in Dress.—The difference between the eighteenth and nineteenth century is most obvious to the eye in dress. The modern town gentleman with his short hair, tall hat, dark cloth coat, trousers, boots and umbrella, or his plain black evening-dress, is a great contrast to the beau of 1770 with his three-cornered hat, wig, bright-coloured coat with lace ruffles, knee-breeches, silk stockings, shoes, sword and cane. The change was fairly complete by George IV.'s reign, as the portraits show, except that in the place of the modern collar and tie men wore large neckerchiefs, generally black, round rather high limp collars.

For the first twenty years or so of George III.'s reign there was no great change; in fact there was still more extravagance of fashion. The first change was that gentlemen began to wear their own hair, generally powdered

The three eldest daughters of George III., about 1785.
Notice the powdered hair and graceful style of hairdressing.

and tied behind, like the wigs, in a short "queue" or tail, with a black bow. Then about 1780 some of the rising male generation began to rebel against the inconvenient full dress. They wanted more simplicity and comfort, and dressed during the day in more of an outdoor country costume—a large dark-coloured cloth coat, known as a "great-coat," and top-boots, and discarded lace and ruffles. Thus arose a distinction between "morning dress," worn before dinner, and "full," or as it is now called, "evening dress." Umbrellas came in from France at the same time, and were considered only fit for ladies. The proper thing for a gentleman to do, if it rained, was to take a coach. The first man who carried an umbrella in London was jeered and hooted for months with cries of "Take a coach!" and "Frenchman!" Some men, too, began to cut their hair short. They were known as the "Crop Club" or "Bedford Crops," because one evening, at the Duke of Bedford's country seat, he and his guests solemnly renounced the fashion of the day, and all retired to have their hair cut and the powder washed off. A great blow to powder was dealt by a tax levied on it by Pitt in 1795.

Fox was a leader of the new fashion and was the first to appear in "morning dress" in Parliament; and when he joined Lord North in 1783, he and his friends, in their "great-coats" and top-boots, were a great contrast to Lord North in his full dress, silk stockings and shoes. Even in full dress the wearing of swords was given up; duels were now usually fought with pistols. The three-cornered hat went too; the brim became narrower and was not turned up, the crown became higher, and it turned into something like the top-hat, though not so high. Some fashionable young men also began to wear their close-fitting knee-breeches longer, till they reached the ankle. At the beginning of the nineteenth century they became looser, and so developed into the modern trousers.

The change of manners in England and the influence

Going to School. From a picture of 1790.

The little boy has a boy's costume of jacket and trousers; but the elder boy and little girl have grown-up costumes

of France, where the Revolution naturally put an end to aristocratic distinction in dress, also had their effect, and bright colours went out. Old-fashioned people deplored the decay of "fashion," as they called it, and said that great men dressed like tradesmen. For some years there were differences in costume. For a time, even after Waterloo, knee-breeches were insisted on for evening-dress. The "Duke" himself was refused admission to a public society ball in London because he was in trousers. At Court, too, no change, except as to hair and bright colour, was allowed. Court dress, worn by gentlemen on state occasions, still consists of the old-fashioned coat and knee-breeches, all black, and a sword. Individuals clung to some of the old fashions for many years. Some of the bishops wore wigs in Victoria's reign; and to this day all bishops, deans, and archdeacons wear knee-breeches, with black cloth gaiters. Barristers wear wigs in court, while judges and the Speaker of the Commons in full dress wear long wigs and knee-breeches and shoes.

There were similar changes of fashion in ladies' costume. The elaborate head-dress went first, and then powder; soon bonnets took the place of hats, and remained in fashion for many years. The Revolution brought in a simple dress without hoops, but it did not last long, and hoops came back again.

Another change was that special dress came in for children, who had hitherto been dressed like their elders.

Improvement in Means of Communication. Canals and good Roads.—The most striking of all the differences between the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries was caused by the invention of steamships and railways. When Watt had invented a really workable steam-engine, it was natural that it should be used for locomotion on land and water, especially as, owing to the great growth of manufactures, better and cheaper means were wanted for carrying goods and travellers. But this development took a long time. It was thirty years before a successful steam-boat and

locomotive engine were made, and fourteen more before the first passenger railway line was opened.

Goods were still carried on pack-horses, stage-waggons, and on rivers by barges towed by horses, while travelling was slow and difficult owing to the bad roads. But in the beginning of George III.'s reign canals were started, which were already used on the Continent, and roads were improved. The first important canal was the Bridgewater Canal, made by an engineer called Brindley, for the Duke

Mail Coach, end of eighteenth century.

of Bridgewater, to carry coal from his mine to Manchester, and it halved the price of coal there. So canals at once began to be made all over the country, till at the end of this period there were two thousand miles of them, and the cost of carriage fell to a quarter of what it had been.

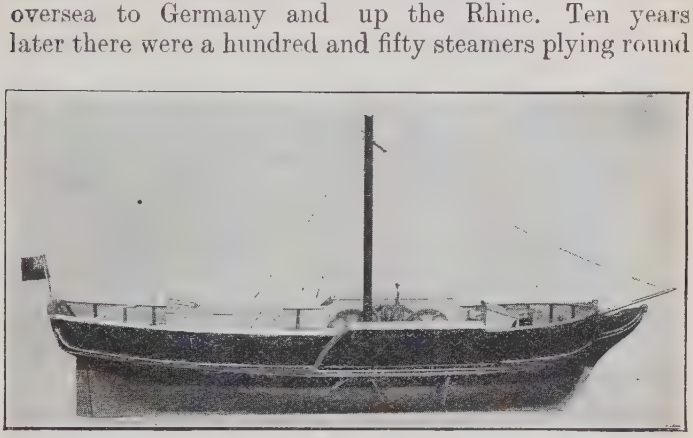
When George III. came to the throne, the roads were so bad that the Edinburgh and London coach, which went only once a month, took sixteen days on the journey; and most people still travelled on horseback. Turn-

pikes, first started in Charles II.'s reign, were set up all over the country, much to the disgust of the people; but the roads were improved. Finally, real scientific road-making was introduced by a Scotsman called Macadam, whose name has survived in "macadamised" roads. In 1784 Pitt, in spite of the opposition of the Post Office, started the system of sending the mails by coach instead of by mounted post-boys. It was a theatre manager of Bath who suggested the change, finding that he could drive the distance in a day while the post-boys took three. Now began the great coaching days, which lasted to the end of this period. By 1792 sixteen mail coaches started every day from London, in various directions. The journey to Edinburgh soon took only three days. Mail-coaches carried an armed guard as a protection against highwaymen, and the name has survived in the modern railway guard.

Steam applied to Locomotion. Steam-boats; the "Comet," 1812.—Even before Watt's steam-engine, inventors in Britain and abroad had been trying their hands on steam-boats, and a Scotsman made a double vessel, with seven paddles in the middle, worked by hand. At last, in 1802, another Scotsman named Symington constructed a steam-tug called the *Charlotte Dundas*, with one large paddle-wheel at the stern, to tow barges on the Clyde and Forth Canal. It might have been a success, but the canal authorities would not allow it to be used, from fear of its wash injuring the banks, and Symington died in poverty. But an American had one of these engines made and sent to America, and in 1807 his boat was working successfully on the Hudson. Finally, in 1812, a third Scotsman achieved success on the Clyde with the *Comet*, named after a comet which appeared at that time. It had paddle-wheels on both sides, and its engine was three horse-power. The new invention was naturally not admired by sailors. One day the *Comet's* crew jeered at a sailing-ship which it was overtaking. "Get oot o' my

sicht!" shouted back the skipper, "I'm just gaun' as it pleases the breath o' the Almichty; and I'll ne'er fash (*i.e.* bother) my thumb how fast ye gang wi' your deevil's reek."

However, the little three-horse-power *Comet* with its "devil's reek," was the beginning of steamers in Europe. Three years later, the year of Waterloo, there were eight steamers, three in England and five in Scotland; and the son of James Watt took the first steamer that went oversea to Germany and up the Rhine. Ten years later there were a hundred and fifty steamers plying round



Model of the *Comet*, the first British steamer that was actually used.

the coast, to Ireland, and the near Continental ports. In 1818 an American steamer, the *Savannah*, crossed the Atlantic in thirty-two days. Like all the steamers of this period, she was a small sailing-ship fitted with an engine and paddles, and, as her fuel gave out, she did a third of the voyage under sail. For twenty years there was no further attempt to perform the voyage by steam. In 1829 a service was started to Lisbon. The first steamer was the *William Fawcett*, of sixty horse-power. In 1837 these steamers were taken over by a company called the "Peninsular," formed to carry the mails to

Portugal and Spain. It is now the great Peninsular and Oriental Company (P. & O.), and goes to India, Australia and the Far East.

Railways. George Stephenson. Opening of the Stockton and Darlington Railway, 1825.—If Scotland has the credit of the modern engine and the first steamer, England has the credit of the first railway engine. It had long been the custom to use wooden rails in collieries, as it was found that horses could by this means draw

By permission of the P. & O. Co.

Bomb Ketch (a type withdrawn from the Navy about this date).

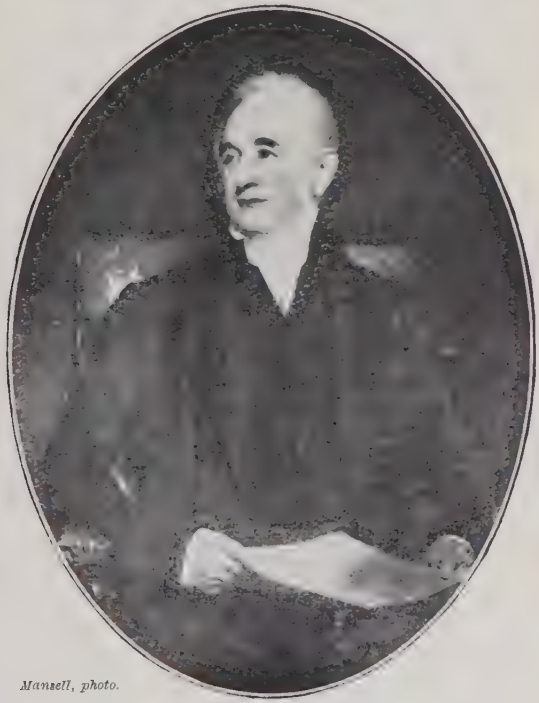
H.M.S. *St. Vincent*, 101 guns.

The first P. & O. Steamship *William Fawcett*, 209 tons, built 1829, with some naval contemporaries.

much heavier loads. At the beginning of the century iron rails came in, and a few towns built horse-tramways for the conveyance of goods. At the same time, engineers were trying their hands at making moving or "locomotive" engines to draw the trucks instead of horses; but they were very complicated affairs, and not very successful.

At this time there was in a northern colliery a young

engineer called George Stephenson, the son of a common working-man, who tended a pumping-engine. He had educated himself in a night-school. Feeling sure that steam was going to be the great locomotive power, Stephenson studied the experiments of other inventors.



Mansell, photo.

George Stephenson.

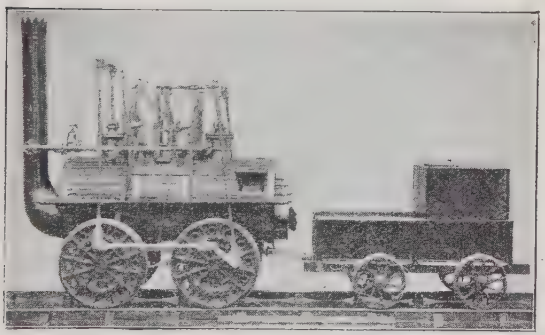
and in 1814 he made a locomotive for his colliery that settled the question. A few years later, the traders of Darlington determined to build a horse-tramway, thirty-eight miles long, to Stockton, to bring coal and goods to their town. On their first application to Parliament, the Bill was rejected because the tramway would interfere

with fox-hunting. But a second application was successful, and, as Stephenson had now made himself a great name, he was appointed engineer. Stephenson, full of his belief in steam, persuaded the Darlington men to adopt it. The Stockton and Darlington line, the first railway, was opened in September 1825, and the price of coal at Darlington fell to a half. Passengers were carried in a single coach that did the double journey once a day.

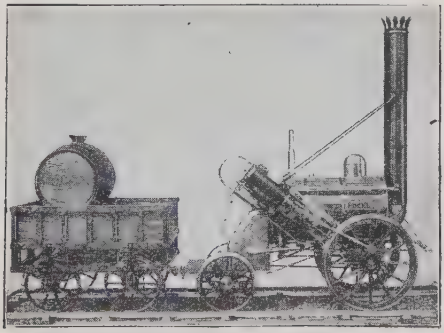
The Liverpool and Manchester Railway, 1830.—Next, the merchants of Liverpool and Manchester resolved to have a railway. At first they were undecided between horse-power and steam, but the success of Stephenson's experiments won the day for steam, and he was made engineer of this line too. The Liverpool and Manchester Bill came before Parliament in the spring, before the opening of the Stockton and Darlington Railway. It too was rejected the first time. The canal-owners objected from fear of losing their profits; the land-owners from fear of injury to their estates. Many people, too, were horrified at the idea of steam railways. People, it was said, would sooner be fired off upon a rocket than trust themselves to a machine going fifteen miles an hour. Railways, too, would do great harm; the sparks from the engine would set fire to houses; birds would be killed; cattle would be so frightened that the cows would give no milk. Finally, carriages would go out of use, and the breed of horses come to an end. However, as before, the Bill was passed on the second application, and the construction of the railway began.

In 1829 the directors offered a prize of £500 for the best engine. A competition of three engines took place, and Stephenson won the prize with the Rocket, which went thirty miles an hour. You can see from the pictures that the Rocket is a great improvement on former engines, being much less complicated. It is a poor little thing compared with the splendid engines of the present day; but they are all simply improved Rockets.

Puffing Billy. A colliery engine built in 1813.



Locomotion. First engine of the Stockton and Darlington Railway



The Rocket.

The line was finished in 1830, and in September the opening ceremony took place amid great popular excitement. Unfortunately, there was a sad accident. Among those who had seats in the train were "the Duke," at that time Prime Minister, and Huskisson, one of the "Canningites" who had quarrelled with the Duke. The Duke was anxious for a reconciliation, and had some talk with Huskisson; but as Huskisson was walking away from the carriage, he was knocked over by a passing engine and killed, and a promising career was cut short.

Many Railway Lines begun.—No doubt the opponents of railways said that the accident justified their fears. But the Liverpool and Manchester line proved a great success, and the profits were far greater than the directors had expected. Before the death of William IV., several other towns were linked by railways; and other lines, the beginnings of the Great Trunk lines from London, were in construction, such as the London to Birmingham (North Western), the London to Bristol (Great Western), and the London to Brighton.

There was still great opposition from people and towns not connected with trade. Some such towns were able to keep the railways at a distance, and are now very sorry for it. Windsor, for instance, would not have the Great Western nearer than Slough, and is now consequently on a branch instead of on the main line.

Sufferings of the Working Classes. Low Wages, and the bad Poor Law.—Most great changes bring some evil in their train, and, unfortunately, while the country was growing richer and population was increasing owing to machinery and improvements in agriculture, the conditions of life of the working classes became for a time distinctly worse, so that, when the war brought high prices, there was, as you have read, discontent and rioting.

In the first place, whereas the cottage workers had lived in the pure country air, the mill hands flocked into the town to be near the work, and lived in badly built houses

Trains in the reign of William IV.

in wretched slums and crowded alleys; while many of the labourers, who had taken the place of the small farmers, left the country-side for the towns in hope of better wages. Ever since then, especially in the north, towns have been spreading, and the health and strength of the people have suffered.

Then the employers, both manufacturers and farmers, in their eagerness to make money, gave as small wages as possible, which the workers had to accept in order to avoid starvation. So great was the misery when prices were raised by the war, that the poor law guardians gave relief indiscriminately, even to people in work. This increased the poor-rate enormously; but the employers liked it, as it kept the wages low. As to the workers, it made them thriftless, as they felt that they had not to depend on themselves.

Women and Children Workers. –This was not the worst. Much of the machinery could be worked by women and even children, so parents, to add to their earnings, sent their children to the mills, even at the age of six; and even the guardians apprenticed children under their charge to mill-owners. When the poor little things fell asleep at their monotonous tasks, they were beaten with a strap or drenched with water. Women, too, were employed in the coal-mines to drag the trucks of coal along galleries in which they could not stand upright; and there was work there even for children.

It seems horrible to us nowadays that such things were permitted, but it was thought that interference would be bad for the trade of the country. One statesman, Sir Robert Peel (father of the Tory minister), himself a successful manufacturer, was able to pass a Bill in 1802, but it was only that no child should work more than twelve hours a day. Then, in 1833, though the manufacturers were then strong in Parliament, Earl Grey's Ministry passed a "Factory Act," as it was called, that children under thirteen should work only eight hours a day. This was mainly due to

the exertions of Lord Ashley, afterwards the Earl of Shaftesbury, an Evangelical philanthropist, who all through his long life worked for the cause of the poor and "factory legislation," as such laws are called.

Earl Grey's Ministry also passed a law forbidding outdoor relief, and setting up workhouses (which already existed in some places), into which all who wanted relief were obliged to come, and do work if able-bodied. This law, though rather harsh, did much good; but since then, outdoor relief has again been permitted to a certain extent.

The Army and Navy.—Both the army and navy were largely increased during the Great War, and though they were reduced after the Peace, the army was larger than before the war, numbering 100,000 men, including the troops in India and elsewhere abroad. But the armies of the European Powers remained much larger than before, numbering about half a million each; for compulsory service, or "conscription," which had been started by the French Republic, had been adopted by the other nations in self-defence. Prussia now had the most complete system; her method was to train the men in the regular army for two or three years, and then pass them into a reserve ready to be called out for war. For, when Napoleon imposed peace on Prussia after the victory of Jena, he limited her army to 40,000 men; but, by passing men through the army in this way, she evaded the limitation, and had a large force ready in the War of Liberation. Britain alone kept up the old voluntary system; and the men served for life, or as long as they were fit.

The only important invention was the percussion-cap, which in George IV.'s reign took the place of the flint and steel of the flint-lock. Later, there was a great advance in the size and build of ships. The change in dress naturally spread to the services. Loose trousers were already worn by common sailors, and they were given to the army about the beginning of the Peninsular War.

Pig-tails had for some time been worn by common soldiers and sailors, for whom wigs were naturally too expensive. They also went at the same time as the knee-breeches, to the great joy of the men, who, we are told, made bonfires of them when ordered to cut them off. One regiment,

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Infantry officer and men in the Peninsular War.

embarking at Portsmouth, threw them into the harbour with three cheers. Some time before, the three-cornered hat had disappeared; with only two sides turned up, it became the cocked hat worn by all naval officers and generals in the army. Various head-dresses were introduced in the army—helmets for dragoons, a heavy

"shako" for most infantry regiments, and the tall bearskins or busbies (a French fashion) for the Guards and some other regiments. The Highlanders have always kept their plumed bonnets. One bad change was made; the soldiers were given tightly buttoned "swallow-tail" coats, with a close-fitting stock round the neck, instead of the more comfortable coat of the eighteenth-century soldiers.

The Growth of London.—The steady growth of London is shown by the number of new bridges that were required. Blackfriars Bridge, since rebuilt, was opened in the early years of George III.; Vauxhall, Waterloo, as its name shows, and Southwark, soon after the battle of Waterloo; while the present handsome stone London Bridge was finished at the beginning of William IV.'s reign. Waterloo is also a fine bridge; but Southwark, Blackfriars, and Vauxhall were poor affairs, and all three have been rebuilt. Suburbs such as Kennington, Chelsea, Paddington, Islington and Shoreditch were swallowed up, and houses extended along the main roads to Hammersmith, Fulham, Clapham, and Brixton, while villages like Hampstead, Highgate, Putney, where Pitt had a house on the Heath, and Streatham, had become suburbs.

The Regency gave names to Regent's Park, which was laid out on what was then the edge of the town, and Regent Street, with its "classical" Quadrant. Trafalgar Square commemorates Nelson's victory, but his column was not set up till the early years of Victoria, while the lions are much later. Waterloo Place also commemorates the battle, but its monument is later. The National Gallery on the north side of Trafalgar Square was begun in the reign of William IV. and finished the year after his death. The British Museum was also begun in William IV.'s reign; both it and the National Gallery are in the heavy classical style of the day.

Cabs and Omnibuses. The New Police.—As London grew in size, cheaper means of getting about became

necessary. Hitherto the only public conveyances were the two-horse hackney coaches, but in the year of Waterloo smaller one-horse ones were started, the origin of the "four-wheeler." In Paris, for some time, there had been one-horse cabriolets, a sort of hooded gig, with one seat beside the driver. These were introduced into London in the reign of George IV. Then, in William IV.'s reign, a man called Hansom started an improved form, which was called after him. The name cabriolet was soon shortened into "cab," which was applied to both hansoms and four-wheelers. A little later than the cabriolet came the omnibus, in 1829. It also was introduced from Paris. The first one ran from Paddington to the Bank of England. "Omnibus" is a Latin word meaning "for all," so an "omnibus carriage" meant a carriage that any one could get into, in contrast to cabs, which people hire for themselves alone.

Another great change was the introduction of coal-gas for lighting in the place of oil. Toward the end of the eighteenth century experiments were being made with gas, and Watt used it successfully in his works. Other manufacturers adopted gas, and in due course London followed their example. Pall Mall was lit with it in 1809, and all the important streets by 1814.

Finally came a most important improvement, the establishment of the London police. Hitherto there had only been the inefficient watchmen, the "Charlies," and a small force employed in arresting criminals, known as "Bow Street runners," because the chief police-court is in Bow Street. In place of these two bodies Sir Robert Peel, when Home Secretary in 1829, established an able-bodied and well-drilled force of constables, armed with batons or small clubs. The new police were much disliked at first as too much like soldiers, and were nicknamed from their founder, "Bobbies" and "Peelers," names that have lasted ever since.

Rowing and Cricket.—By the end of this period games were beginning to take their present place in our national

life. In George IV.'s reign Eton was playing Harrow and Winchester at cricket at Lord's. In 1827 the first match between Oxford and Cambridge was played; and two years later, in 1829, they had their first boat-race, in ordinary boats, at Henley. But these university contests were not yet annual; they were got up only by a few enthusiasts. There was still little sport at the universities; the rich undergraduates took their exercise on horse-back. Cricket was no new game: some form of a bat and ball game seems to have existed from the Middle Ages, and the name "cricket" appears in the sixteenth century as a school-boy's amusement. By the eighteenth century it was a man's game; matches were played for money, and there was much betting. Still, it was hardly our cricket, for the wicket consisted of two sticks a foot apart, with another on the top, and the bat was a sort of curved club. But in the first-known Laws of Cricket, issued in 1774, the modern wicket has appeared, though lower and narrower.

The famous Marylebone Club arose out of a London club that originally played on the Artillery Ground at Finsbury, where in the old days the archers used to practise. Thence it moved westwards, its second move in 1787 being to the then country parish of Marylebone, where one of its members, Thomas Lord, obtained it a ground, which bore his name. The present Lord's, however, is the third of the Marylebone grounds, and was acquired in 1814.

Seaside Resorts. Brighton.—A great feature of the present day is the seaside watering-place. In the last period, Bath and other inland spas were the great resorts of society. But towards the end some people began to prefer sea-bathing, and one of the places they resorted to was Brighton, owing to its fine air. It was then known as Brighthelmstone, but there had been other forms of the name, and the meaning is quite doubtful. At that time Brighton was a struggling fishing town, with a packet service to Dieppe. In the middle of the century, a great

The Parade at Brighton in 1805.
Notice the variety of the men's costumes and the ladies' bonnets. The rider on the dark horse is the Prince of Wales.

doctor wrote a paper recommending sea-bathing, which brought many more people to Brighton, so that he was regarded there as a public benefactor. Early in George III.'s reign his brothers patronised the town; and some years later a Master of Ceremonies was appointed, who had just given up that post at Bath. Finally, in 1783, the Prince of Wales came on a visit to one of his uncles, and was so delighted with Brighton that the next year he took a house there. This he rebuilt in an absurdly fantastic Moorish style, and called it the Marine Pavilion. The fortune of Brighton was now made. It was a rival of Bath, and has ever since been the queen of watering-places. Bath, however, held its own as a fashionable resort till the reign of Victoria.

SUMMARY.

Contrast between the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries—Higher standard in national life and the causes of it.

The old literature—Dr. Johnson and Boswell—Goldsmith—Beginning of the new literature; study of nature; Cowper and Burns—Influence of the French Revolution on poets; Wordsworth, Southey and Coleridge—Scott and Byron—Shelley and Keats—Novelists; Scott and Jane Austen—Newspapers and reviews; *The Times*—Influence of the Reform Bill; Macaulay, Tennyson and Carlyle—Dickens.

Change in dress; decay of artificiality, and introduction of men's present dress.

Improvement in means of communication by canals and road-making—the Post—Beginning of steamers; the *Comet*—Beginning of railways—George Stephenson and the Stockton and Darlington Railway—Liverpool and Manchester Railway.

The working classes; low wages and bad Poor Law—Women and children workers—Growth of Continental armies owing to conscription—change in uniforms—Growth of London; poor architecture—Cabs and omnibuses—Gas—The modern police—Games—Seaside resorts.

DATES.

1812. The "Comet," first successful steamer in Britain.

1825. Opening of the Stockton and Darlington Railway.

CHAPTER LX

Victoria, 1837-1901

(I)

Constitutional Monarchy and the Repeal of the Corn Laws

Queen Victoria. Separation from Hanover.—The year 1837 is a memorable one in our history. The accession of Queen Victoria regained for the throne the lost loyalty of the people. Their hearts naturally went out to the young girl called to her high position of responsibility; and her long reign, the longest in our annals, served only to increase their loyalty.

In Hanover a queen might not reign, so her uncle, the Duke of Cumberland, became king; and Hanover was separated from the British Crown, to which it had been united for a hundred and twenty-three years. Thirty years later the separation saved us from being entangled in a German war.

Victoria had a strong character, which she showed sometimes in her childhood by wilfulness; she was well gifted, of a bright and happy disposition, fond of gaiety, and of music and drawing, slight and graceful in figure, with a quiet dignity. She had been brought up very simply, and always preferred a homely life, disliking the grandeur of rank and wealth. Her Court naturally set a high standard to society; but it was not dull, like George III.'s.

King Leopold had advised her as to her course of action on her accession, and she at once took her place. She

received the Lord Chancellor and Archbishop, who brought her the news of the King's death, alone, without her mother, and the Duchess of Kent found that she was to have no influence in public affairs. She was undoubtedly hurt at first, but the Queen was always an affectionate daughter to her till her death twenty-four years afterwards.

Victoria and Lord Melbourne. Constitutional Monarchy.—Victoria had been trained to be a "constitutional sovereign," that is, to accept the ministry and policy supported by the House of Commons. Her personal opinions seem, as far as can be judged, to have been those of the class that had come into power with the Reform Bill, and, like the majority of that class, in her later years she was rather Conservative than Liberal. She was therefore only too glad to have Lord Melbourne for her Prime Minister; and he, kindly and courteous in his manner, at once won the affections of his young sovereign, who looked up to him almost as a father. To the Tories it seemed as if her accession would prolong the Whig Ministry, and at first they were ill-disposed towards her. But, as the Tories had accepted the Reform Bill, there was no constitutional question to cause a difficulty. The one difficulty of which you will read was a purely personal matter. Thus was Constitutional Monarchy, which had been assailed by George III., and once violated by William IV., finally established.

Her View of Queenship, and her Influence in the State.—At the same time, there is no doubt that Victoria held a very high view of her queenship, perhaps something not unlike Divine Right. She held in great honour the memory of the exiled Stuarts, so much so that she would not allow the name "Pretender" to be used of them in her presence. She felt she was in some way their successor, as there were no living descendants of James II. Perhaps this accounts for her love for Scotland, and her buying there the estate of Balmoral as a country residence.

But to her, queenship meant, above all, duty—the duty of working for the good of her people. "My people" was

Queen Victoria in the early years of her reign.

a phrase she constantly used in her personal messages to the nation. And from this path of duty, which she had

marked out for herself, she never swerved. She never publicly opposed her ministers; but it must not be supposed that she had no influence. She expected all measures taken by the Ministry to be plainly explained to her, and such objections as she made to be clearly answered. All foreign dispatches were, of course, submitted to her before being sent, and she often suggested alterations to avoid giving offence; and once, as you will read, she had a Foreign Secretary dismissed for acting in an important matter without her knowledge. If the Ministry were united against her view, she gave way after making her protest; if they were disunited, she fought hard for her own view. When something happened that she thought wrong, it met with a direct and sometimes very severe rebuke; and the minister responsible for it had to justify himself to her. She often gave advice. If it was not taken, a minister once said, it was generally found that the Queen was right. On one occasion certainly it would have saved the country from a great humiliation. When there was a change of Ministry, it of course lay with her to choose the new Prime Minister. Her rule in this was to take the advice of the retiring Prime Minister; in any case she took no account of her personal feelings.

In two ways Victoria's influence was most beneficial. At times when party struggles rose to a dangerous pitch, she used it to smooth things over. In foreign affairs too, in her later years, her great experience and her relationship with foreign sovereigns were of great service.

Secondly, as the colonies grew into self-ruling dominions, Victoria's position as head of the Empire became more important. Just as the American colonies resented their taxation by Parliament, and appealed, unfortunately in vain, to George III., so now the over-sea Britons, while jealous of their independence to the Home Government, are united in loyalty to the Crown, which has thus become the one visible link of the Empire. Even the natives under

our rule learned to love and venerate the "Great White Queen."

Such was the position Victoria won for the Crown during her long reign. At her accession she was, of course, as yet inexperienced, and had to learn her duties. She herself wrote many years afterwards that the first years of her reign, till her marriage, were the "least sensible and satisfactory time of her whole life"; it was a time of "constant amusement, flattery, excitement and mere politics" such as would have a bad effect on any one.

Resignation and Return of Lord Melbourne. The Queen and her Ladies.—It was in these first years that Victoria made her one constitutional mistake. A general election in 1837 had weakened the Ministry still further, so that it could barely hold its own in the Commons; and two years later Lord Melbourne thought it desirable to resign, though he had sustained no decisive defeat. It was a bitter blow to the young Queen; but, as was her duty, she asked, first, the Duke, who refused, and then Sir Robert Peel, to form a ministry. But a difficulty arose, for the Ladies of the Household had been recommended by Lord Melbourne, and so were all Whigs, and the Queen had grown very fond of them. Sir Robert Peel said that the chief Ladies, at least, must be replaced by Tories. Victoria was very indignant. It was "infamous," she wrote to Lord Melbourne; "the Queen of England will not submit to such trickery." As she refused to give way, and was supported by the Whig ministers, Sir Robert Peel declined to form a ministry; so the Queen got back her "good Lord Melbourne." But it would have been better for the Whigs if they had not returned to office, for they only grew weaker and weaker.

The Queen's Marriage with Prince Albert of Saxe-Coburg, 1840.—The marriage of a reigning Queen is a matter of very great importance. You have read of the evil that came of Mary's marriage with Philip of Spain, and of Elizabeth's difficulties and final decision to remain

unmarried. But a husband had to be found for Victoria; in fact, he had already been selected by her uncle and mother before the death of William IV. He had to be of royal rank, a Protestant, but not a prince likely to succeed to any throne, for such a marriage would cause political entanglements. Fortunately, there are in Germany, as you have read, a number of small states, some very small; but their rulers all rank as royal. One of these little states is Saxe-Coburg-Gotha, the Duke of which was brother to the Duchess of Kent and King Leopold. Though Saxe-Coburg-Gotha has less than a quarter of a million inhabitants, its dukes belong to a very ancient German house, the elder branch of which reigns in Saxony. It was on the second son of the Duke, Prince Albert, Victoria's first cousin, and of the same age as herself, that the choice of the Duchess of Kent and King Leopold had fallen. In 1836 the Duke, with his two sons, had paid a visit to England, much to the annoyance of William IV., who himself wished her to marry the grandson of the King of Holland. Victoria was delighted with her cousin. "I must thank you, my beloved uncle," she wrote to King Leopold, "for the prospect of *great* happiness you have contributed to give me, in the person of dear Albert."

In the autumn after the ministerial trouble, it was arranged that the Prince should pay a second visit with his elder brother, and the marriage should be settled. As the time approached, the Queen became uncertain as to her feelings. But all was changed when the Prince came. In a few days her heart was won. She, however, had to make the offer, for the younger son of a petty German prince could not propose to the Queen of Great Britain. Then she herself had to make the announcement to a meeting of the Privy Council, eighty in number. It was "rather formidable," she wrote to her uncle; indeed, her hand trembled so that she could hardly read the paper.

It was necessary for Parliament to vote the Prince an

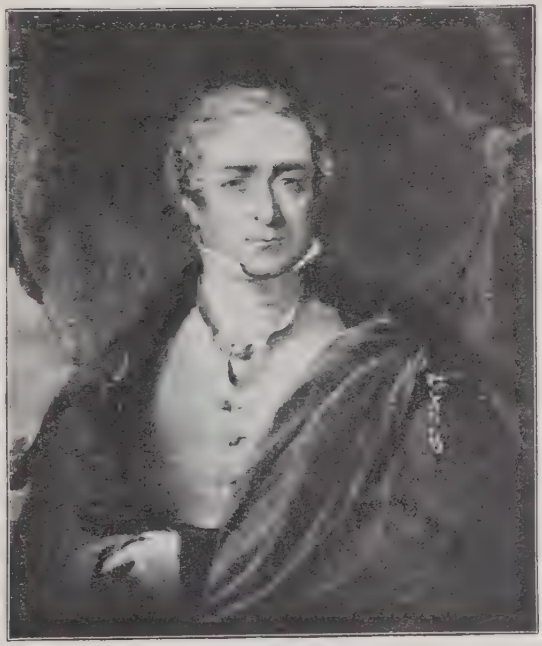
income, as was always done in the case of a Queen Consort. The Ministry proposed the sum of £50,000, which was customary. But the Tories, aided by the Radicals, forced them to reduce it to £30,000 on the ground of economy. The Queen naturally was much offended, and more angry than ever with Sir Robert Peel.

The marriage was celebrated early in 1840 amid enthusiastic demonstrations of popular joy, and no home was happier than that of the Queen and Prince Albert, blessed as it was with a large family, during their all too short union of barely twenty-two years. But Prince Albert's public position was by no means an easy one. As the Queen wrote to him before their marriage, "The English are very jealous of any foreigner interfering in the Government." For this reason he was not made a peer, and it was only many years later that he was given the title of "Prince Consort." Outwardly cold and dignified, very highly educated, after the German custom, and artistic, he seemed rather too perfect to the sporting nobility of England. A year or two later Prince Albert showed his sporting powers by his bold riding with the Belvoir hounds. This created a great sensation, and improved his position; but the Queen, though gratified, could not help remarking on the absurdity of people who made more of his hunting than if he had done some great act.

In public affairs Prince Albert was most careful to give no offence or injure the position of the Queen. But she admitted him after a time into her full confidence, and he was of the greatest assistance in lightening her heavy labours, and advising her. As time went on, the true worth of the Prince was recognised, and the prejudice against him died away. But to the Queen, a true woman with old-fashioned notions about marriage, his inferior position was always somewhat of a trial.

Resignation of Lord Melbourne. Sir Robert Peel's Ministry, 1841.—The year after her marriage, the blow which the Queen dreaded fell on her. There was a

General Election, in which the Tories won a large majority; and after a defeat in the House of Commons, Lord Melbourne resigned. He had warned the Queen that she must now accept Sir Robert Peel, and give in about the Ladies. But Lord Melbourne and Prince Albert arranged matters to prevent any humiliation of the Queen, which



Sir Robert Peel.

Sir Robert Peel declared he was the last person to wish. No reference was to be made to the old dispute; the Queen was to tell Sir Robert that the Ladies in question had resigned, and name the Ladies she wished appointed, who would be Tories. So that difficulty was got over, and Sir Robert Peel became Prime Minister, with the

"Duke" as leader in the House of Lords. The "Duke," who was now over seventy and rather deaf, held no actual office, but he soon was reappointed commander-in-chief.

Sir Robert Peel, who was shy and reserved, took some time to overcome the Queen's dislike of him and his party. Writing to Lord Melbourne, she says that, to her great relief, her new ministers did not often have interviews with her. But, as time went on, she gradually learnt his real worth, his ability, his straightforwardness, and his considerateness for her. Though he was naturally never to her what Lord Melbourne had been, she regarded him as a true friend and loyal minister.

Discontent of the Working Classes. The "Chartists."—Having seen the young Queen fairly launched on her career as a constitutional sovereign, after some difficulties mainly caused by her youthful warm-heartedness, we must turn to the general course of history. The main subjects that were in people's minds, apart from the accession and the party conflict, were wars on the Indian frontier, which will be described in the next chapter, agitation among the working classes for political power, agitation among the manufacturers for the repeal of the duty on corn, and some difficulties with France, which, however, as they never went further than irritation between the two countries, may be passed over.

For some years trade had not been prosperous; consequently there was again distress among the working classes, and people afterwards talked of the "Starving Forties," when labourers could not afford to buy meat. This distress revived the troubles of the last years of George III. The leaders thought the remedy for the distress was representation in Parliament, of which they had been disappointed in the Reform Bill, so in the second year of the reign they put forward their demands in what they called the "People's Charter," from which they were known as "Chartists." These demands were as follows: (1) every grown man to have a vote; (2)

voting to be secret (by "ballot," as it is called), to prevent a man being frightened into voting as his employer wished; (3) a new Parliament to be elected every year; (4) members to be paid; (5) the law to be abolished that a member must have a certain property, so that working-men might become members, and (6) the country to be divided into constituencies each of the same size, so that towns containing a large working-class population might be properly represented. At that time, when the nation was not in the mood for a new Reform Bill, these demands were out of the question; but (2) (4) and (5) have since been granted, and the Reform Bills of 1867, 1884, and 1917 have done much towards granting (1) and (6). (3) was absurd; the turmoil of a general election every year would be intolerable; but recently the life of a Parliament has been reduced from seven to five years.

As Parliament would have nothing to do with the "Charter," force was tried. In the following year there were fierce riots, especially in Birmingham and Newport, and soldiers had to be called out to suppress them. The ringleaders were convicted and severely punished. Then, as trade improved, the Chartists were quiet for a time.

Trade Unions.—There was, however, an easier way to improve the condition of the working classes than by fighting for representation in Parliament. This was by forming what are called "Trade Unions," and by "strikes." A single working-man cannot do any good by refusing work for wages he thinks too low, for another man will take his place; but if most of the men in a factory, for instance, stand together, and strike work, they can force the employer to consider their case. Trade unions had been started in the last century, but had been forbidden by law. Then, after the accession of George IV., most of the restrictions against them had been gradually removed, but the working classes were still looking to political Reform to help them. Now, when Chartism failed, they again turned to the unions, and many more

were founded. They were not only for protection against the employers, but were also clubs for help in sickness. At the present day, when the working classes have also representation in Parliament, the trade unions are very powerful; indeed, in the opinion of some people, too powerful.

Richard Cobden and the "Anti-Corn Law League."—A third remedy was put forward by the manufacturers: this was to abolish the custom duties on corn—the "Corn Laws," as they were called. The Corn Laws were part of a system called "Protection," by which custom duties were levied on imports not only for revenue, but also to protect the industries of the country; this had long been the practice in Britain and other countries. Now, however, people were beginning to think that it would be better if trade were free and custom duties were levied, for revenue only, on a few imports. We were so much ahead of other nations in our manufactures that they did not need Protection; while, if the Corn Laws were abolished, bread would be cheaper, the workers could live comfortably on less wages, and so the manufacturers would profit, and trade would increase. The leading "Free Trader" was a clever calico manufacturer of Manchester, Richard Cobden. He had been writing on the subject in the late reign, and in 1838 he founded a society, called the "Anti-Corn Law League," to win the nation over to his views by public meetings and writings. Cobden, who was better at writing than speaking, found an ally in an eloquent speaker, John Bright, who became his lifelong friend. He was a Quaker, and son of a Rochdale mill-owner. Under these two leaders the Anti-Corn Law League made rapid progress, though at first the Chartist leaders regarded it with suspicion. But the land-owners did not want corn to become cheaper; they said it would lower rents and ruin agriculture, and they opposed the League with might and main.

Sir Robert Peel and Free Trade. The Irish Famine.—

Both Cobden and Bright got into Parliament as Radicals during Sir Robert Peel's Ministry, but at first they could do little there; they could get only ninety members to vote on their side. The Whigs were naturally nearer their views than the Tories, but the Whig leaders would not go farther than a small fixed duty on corn. Sir Robert Peel was very clever at finance; in fact, one of the reasons why he had beaten the Whigs was that it was thought that the bad trade was due to their bad finance. He saw the benefits of "Free Trade," and, in the earlier years of his Ministry, abolished many duties, which was one of the reasons why trade became so much better. But, as most of his party were land-owners, he naturally felt that the Corn Laws must be kept on, though he lowered them a little.

Suddenly, a terrible famine in Ireland changed the whole situation. As you have read, the chief industry in Ireland, except in the north, is agriculture; but at that time the way of farming was very unscientific. Both landlords and peasants were generally thriftless. The landlords therefore had to get as much rent as possible out of their land, while the peasants, whose one object was to have a piece of land, were contented to live a hand to mouth existence in wretched hovels, tilling their little holdings as best they could. Compared to the English peasants, they were more like savages. Their chief food was the potato, which had been introduced by Raleigh from America, and was so cheap and easily grown that, in spite of their miserable condition, the peasants reared large families. At that time the population of Ireland was half that of England, and three times that of Scotland.

In 1845 there came a very wet summer, which damaged the English wheat crop, and utterly ruined the Irish potato crop. In the autumn, Sir Robert Peel came to the conclusion that the corn laws must now go. Unfortunately he could not convince all his colleagues, and so he resigned; but, as Lord John Russell could not form

a ministry, he consented to resume office. The Duke, according to his principle that the Queen's Government must be carried on, supported him, and only one minister actually resigned. That was Lord Stanley, afterwards, as Earl of Derby, a Tory Prime Minister. He had been one of the Canningite Tories who had joined the Whigs, but had gone back to the Tories owing to Earl Grey's Irish policy. His place was taken by Gladstone, of whom you will hear much later; he was an able young Tory, the son of a Liverpool merchant.

Repeal of the Corn Laws, 1846. Disraeli and Sir Robert Peel. –When Parliament met at the beginning of 1846, Sir Robert Peel announced his intention of abolishing the Corn Laws gradually in three years, while to prevent famine in Ireland, maize and meal were to be imported free. The Tory land-owners were furious at this "betrayal," and they found an unexpected spokesman in Disraeli, afterwards the great rival of Gladstone.

Benjamin Disraeli, generally known as "Dizzy," belonged to an old Jewish family which in the days of the Inquisition had fled from Spain to Venice, whence his grandfather had come to England in the middle of the eighteenth century. His father, Isaac D'Israeli (for such was the real spelling of the name), was a famous writer. Benjamin himself was baptised in the English Church, but he always openly professed the greatest admiration for the Jewish nation. He was clever, witty, and very ambitious, made a name by some clever novels, and, at the age of thirty-three, succeeded in getting into Parliament as a Tory in the year of the Queen's accession. He was regarded in the House with amused contempt, and laughed down at his first speech, which he ended with the words, "The time will come when you will hear me."

When Sir Robert Peel proposed the Repeal of the Corn Laws, Disraeli felt that his time had come. He had already attacked him for reducing duties, declaring that he had "caught the Whigs bathing and stolen their

clothes," and that a Conservative Government was an "organised hypocrisy." Now he got up and, amid the delighted cheers of the angry Protectionist Tories, fiercely denounced Peel as a traitor to his party. In spite of the abuse and sarcasm of the new Tory spokesman, Sir Robert Peel carried his Bill with the help of the Whigs; but he had sealed his own fate. Soon afterwards, owing to the amount of crime in Ireland, he brought in a measure to strengthen the law there. The Whigs objected to it as a violation of freedom. Though the Tories were in favour of it, ninety of them voted with the Whigs, and thus defeated their "traitor" chief on the very day that the Bill repealing the corn laws was carried in the House of Lords. Sir Robert Peel resigned, and Lord John Russell now formed a Whig Government. To the Queen the loss of Sir Robert Peel was as distressing as the loss of Lord Melbourne had been five years before.

The Irish Famine, 1846-1847.—Sir Robert Peel's measures came too late to save Ireland. An appalling famine raged for two years, as the potato crop failed again. The English subscribed large sums of money; soup kitchens were set up, food was distributed, foreign countries sent grain, and relief works were started by the Government. But hundreds of thousands perished from famine and the fever which followed, and hundreds of thousands went off to the United States, where there was plenty of work for all, for the United States were rapidly growing in prosperity as their territory continued to extend westwards across the continent. Famine and emigration soon reduced the population of Ireland to five millions; and as the emigration has gone on steadily since, the population is now about four millions. The Irish emigrants carried with them a passionate love for their country, and a fierce hatred of England, the cause, as they held, of all her troubles.

Lord John Russell was not a great Prime Minister. As the Queen with her usual insight had observed, he had not a strong control over his party; and he only had a majority

with the support of Sir Robert Peel and the Tories who remained loyal to him—the "Peelites" as they were called. Sir Robert, there is little doubt, was at this time the most popular statesman in the country, and was hoping some day to return to power as the leader of a moderate party. In Lord Palmerston too, who was again Foreign Secretary, Lord John Russell had a colleague who was a stronger man than himself, and difficult to manage. Lord Palmerston also greatly offended the Queen. She had never liked his high-handed foreign policy, which irritated foreign sovereigns, and also complained that he often acted without duly consulting her. Between Lord Palmerston and the Queen, Lord John Russell had not an easy time.

The year 1848. Revolutions and Wars in Europe.—These troubles were increased by the events of the year 1848, a memorable year in European history. First of all, in February, Europe was startled by the news of a sudden insurrection in Paris which forced Louis Philippe to flee. He was smuggled out of France on a channel steamer from Havre, by the British Consul there, and given King Leopold's old residence by the Queen. She was much distressed at his fate, for, though his policy had often annoyed her, she was very fond of his daughter, wife of the King of the Belgians. A Republic was now set up in France, but in June the new Government had to suppress a rising of the Paris mob with terrible slaughter. Later in the year, Louis Napoleon Bonaparte, a nephew of the great Emperor, was elected President of the Republic.

But this was not all. The example of France was like an electric spark to the other nations, who had long been cowering under the Holy Alliance, and the French revolution was followed by revolutions in Austria, other parts of Germany, and Italy, which were not finally repressed till the following year. Both Berlin and Vienna were for a time in the hands of the mob, but the Prussian and Austrian armies were loyal, and these risings were crushed. But both sovereigns granted their subjects free constitu-

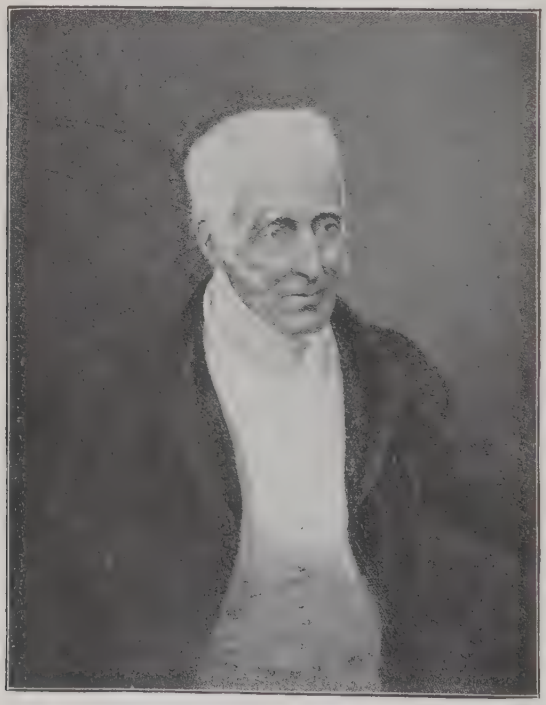
tions. The unfortunate Austrian Emperor had worse troubles. Hungary, of which he was King, and his subjects in north Italy, rebelled against him, and the King of Sardinia, who reigned at Turin, took up the cause of the northern Italians. The Hungarians fought so gallantly that Austria had to summon the aid of Russia, and it was only after a desperate resistance that they were at last crushed. The Italians, too, fought gallantly, but were no match for the Austrians; and the King of Sardinia, after a decisive defeat, abdicated in favour of his son, Victor Emmanuel, who lived to become King of a united Italy.

Finally, in south Italy, there were insurrections in Rome and Naples. The Pope, who, it must be remembered, was the sovereign of the Roman State, was expelled, and a republic set up, but the French sent a force and restored him. In Naples the insurrection failed, and was cruelly punished by the King.

The year '48 at Home. Chartist Agitation, and Rising in Ireland.—Such were the events of '48 and '49 on the Continent. At home the French revolution produced a fresh Chartist agitation, and a feeble rising of the Young Ireland party. This was easily put down by the police, who arrested the leaders. They were condemned to death, but in the end transported to Australia. Two escaped to the United States; the leader, Smith O'Brien, was pardoned a few years later, but not allowed to return to Britain.

The Chartists got up a huge petition, which they said was signed by five million persons, and declared that, on the 10th of April, they would march with it to the House of Commons, a proceeding which is illegal. The Ministry made great preparations. Thousands of special constables were enrolled, and the Duke, as commander-in-chief, had soldiers ready at all important points, but carefully kept them out of sight. The Chartists assembled on Kennington Common, but only about twenty thousand appeared. The head of the police informed the leader that he might

hold his meeting, but not march to Westminster. The leader thought better of it, and took the petition himself in a cab. The petition was found to contain under two million names, many of them nonsensical, such as "the Queen," "Sir Robert Peel," "Punch," and the like. This failure



The Duke of Wellington in his old age.

was the end of Chartism. The Government triumphed easily because, owing to the Reform Bill, they had the middle classes on their side.

Lord Palmerston and the Queen.—There was great sympathy in Britain with the Italians and Hungarians, and

Lord Palmerston did what he could, short of going to war, for the cause of freedom, by urging the sovereigns to moderate counsels. He thus irritated the sovereigns, and also disappointed the British Radicals, who thought he should have stopped France from helping the Pope, and Russia from helping Austria. The Queen, not unnaturally, sympathised with her fellow-sovereigns; the Austrian rule in north Italy seemed to her like the British rule in Ireland.

After the European troubles were over, two curious incidents made her angrier than ever with Lord Palmerston. In 1850 an Austrian general, Haynau, happened to come on a visit. So notorious had he made himself by his great brutality in the Hungarian rebellion (it was said, indeed, that he had even flogged women), that he had been nicknamed "General Hyæna." While in London, he was taken to see Barclay & Perkins' brewery, and was there mobbed by the men. Of course an apology had to be made to the Austrian ambassador; but the Queen and Lord Palmerston differed as to its terms, for the Queen felt that a gross breach of hospitality had been committed, while Lord Palmerston said that the conduct of the men was excusable, and that General Haynau knew perfectly well the feeling against him, and had been advised by the Austrian Government not to come to England. In the end, Lord John Russell forced Lord Palmerston to rewrite his dispatch.

Then next year the great leader of the Hungarian rebellion, Kossuth, now an exile, came to England, and met with a very different welcome. Lord Palmerston invited him to the Foreign Office, his official residence. As Kossuth was a rebel against a friendly sovereign, he had no right to do this, and, at the Queen's request, Lord John Russell asked him not to receive Kossuth at all. Lord Palmerston replied angrily, "I will use my own discretion as to whom I may or may not receive in my own house. You will, of course, use yours as to the composition of your

own Government." The Queen then sent a letter to Lord John Russell to be given to Lord Palmerston, commanding him not to receive Kossuth. But Lord John Russell laid the matter before the Cabinet, and, as they all agreed with him, Lord Palmerston again submitted.

Lord Palmerston's Mistake and Dismissal. He turns out Lord John Russell, 1852.—Such a state of things between the Queen and her Foreign Minister could not go on long. The end came a month later, and with it came the end of Lord John Russell's government. There were troubles in France between the President and the Assembly; and in December 1851 the President suddenly arrested his opponents, about two hundred in number, dissolved the Assembly, and held down Paris with his troops. The British Ministry ordered our ambassador to express no opinion on the President's action, but Lord Palmerston privately told the French ambassador that he approved of it, and this was regarded in France as the opinion of the Ministry. Thereupon Lord John Russell, with the Queen's authority, dismissed Lord Palmerston from his office, and his career was thought to be ruined. But Lord Palmerston had plenty of fight in him, and, when Parliament met the following February, he gave "tit for tat to Johnny Russell," as he wrote to his brother, by defeating him on a Bill for reorganising the militia. And Lord John Russell resigned.

Lord Derby's short Tory Ministry. The end of Protection, 1852.—Sir Robert Peel had died two years before, owing to a fall from his horse, so Lord Stanley, now Earl of Derby, came in at the head of a Tory Ministry, with Disraeli as leader of the Commons. Thus Disraeli's attacks on Sir Robert Peel proved the turning-point of his fortunes; but even by his own party Disraeli was regarded with suspicion as a political adventurer.

The Tories, though the largest united party, had not a majority, and, as the landowners had not suffered as much as they had expected, they did not venture to reintroduce the Corn Laws; so the question of Protection

was settled for a long time. After a general election, which left parties as they were, Whigs, Radicals, and Peelites closed up their ranks and defeated the Ministry on their Budget.

Whig and Peelite Ministry.—A new Ministry was made of Peelites and Whigs under Lord Aberdeen, who had been Sir Robert Peel's Foreign Secretary. Lord John Russell led the Commons; Lord Palmerston could not be left out, and accepted the post of Home Secretary; and Gladstone was Chancellor of the Exchequer. The Queen thought it a very strong Ministry, and likely to last a long time. What its fate was, you will read later.

The Great Exhibition of 1851. The Dream of Peace. Death of the Duke of Wellington, 1852.—The year 1851, the last year of Lord John Russell's Ministry, is memorable for the exhibition in Hyde Park, a "Great International Exhibition of the Works of Industry of all Nations." The building was known as the "Crystal Palace," for it was made of iron and glass like a great conservatory; and after the exhibition was over, it was re-erected at Sydenham as a place of amusement and instruction. Many exhibitions have been held since in other countries, and there was one at Kensington eleven years later, but none have been so famous as the first one.

The idea originated with Prince Albert, who wished to bring nations together and improve art in manufactures. For there was at this time a prevalent belief that the days of great wars were over: nations instead of fighting would compete in the peaceful rivalry of commerce, and gradually be drawn together till some day the whole human race was one vast state. Meantime Britain was to set an example by pursuing a policy of peace. The reason of this dream of peace was that there had been no great war since Waterloo, owing to the exhaustion of Europe, and Britain was prospering greatly owing to Free Trade, and also to steamers and railways, and the discovery of gold in America and Australia.

The Great Exhibition in Hyde Park.

The two towers of the present Crystal Palace were added when it was re-erected at Sydenham.

Cobden and Bright, the apostles of Free Trade, were ...ong believers in this dream of peace, expecting other ...tions to adopt Free Trade in due course. So were Lord ...rdeen and Gladstone; but Lord Palmerston dis- ...ed in it. He still held that a nation must show ... ready to fight if necessary, and unfortunately he ...d to be right.

... year after the exhibition (1852) the old Duke of ...gton, the last leading actor in the Great War, passed ...at the age of eighty-three; and his funeral procession ... Paul's was witnessed by a vast concourse drawn ...her to honour the conqueror of Napoleon.

... the end of this year Louis Napoleon made himself ...peror by an almost unanimous vote of the French ...ple. He called himself Napoleon III., as the great apoleon had a son, now dead.

SUMMARY.

Accession of Queen Victoria, and separation of Hanover from the British Crown—Victoria's views of Queenship, and her influence in the State—Lord Melbourne and Victoria—Her marriage—Sir Robert Peel becomes Prime Minister—Discontent of the working classes; the Chartists—The Anti-Corn Law League—The Irish Famine; Sir R. Peel repeals the Corn Laws, and is driven from office—1848 the year of revolutions; rising in Ireland; end of the Chartists—Victoria's dislike of Lord Palmerston; his dismissal by Lord John Russell; and revenge—Short Tory Ministry of Lord Derby—Lord Aberdeen's Ministry of Peelites and Liberals—The Exhibition of 1851 and the dream of peace—Death of the Duke of Wellington.

DATES.

1846. Repeal of the Corn Laws.
1848. The Year of Revolutions.
1851. The Great Exhibition.

CHAPTER LXI

Oversea Britain

India. Supremacy of the Company.—We must now turn our eyes across the seas to India and the distant regions, where the colonies were steadily growing. In our old possession of India nothing very startling had occurred from the Mahratta war, in which Sir Arthur Wellesley fought, up to the accession of Queen Victoria. Two years before Waterloo, there had been a difficult war with the Goorkhas, the hardy little mountaineers of Nepaul on the slopes of the Himalayas. They were beaten at last; but Nepaul was left independent. Ever since then it has been friendly, and the Goorkhas enlist in our army. A few years later a last rising of some of the Mahratta chiefs was finally crushed, and they were deprived of a part of their territory. There was still a Mogul emperor at Delhi, but he was wholly in the British power; and the Company was supreme over its own territory and the native states, up to the plain of the Indus and its tributaries in the north-west—the "Punjaub," or "Five Rivers," which was ruled by the warlike Sikhs, a Hindoo sect. In the mountains beyond the Punjaub were the fierce Mahomedan tribes of the Afghans. But between the Sikhs and Afghans there was fierce hatred, and Ranjit Singh, the Sikh ruler, was our friend; so there was no danger in that quarter.

Success of the British Rule in India. Its difficulties.—You read how by Pitt's India Bill of 1784 the Home Government had been given a share in the rule of India; and early in the nineteenth century, too, the Company had

lost the monopoly of the trade. So its servants were under proper control, and no longer exposed, as in Clive's day, to the temptation of money-making. Secure in its supremacy, the Company devoted all its energy to its proper task of advancing the welfare of its subjects, especially the toiling millions, who for centuries had been ground down by the native rulers. And the way in which it performed this task is one of the glories of Britain.

There were great difficulties in the way, for the civilisation of India is a very old and firmly established one, quite different to the European, and closely bound up with religion both among the Hindoos and Mahomedans, so that both their religions have to be strictly respected by the Government. The Hindoos too, with the exception of the Sikhs, are divided into hereditary "castes," which were originally professions; the highest is the priestly caste of the Brahmins, who, though no longer priests, are regarded as sacred in their persons. It is a terrible thing for a man to lose his caste, which happens if he is defiled by a man of lower caste, or no caste at all, the British and Mahomedans being, of course, of no caste. For instance, a Hindoo's food must be cooked by one of his own caste; and if any one else touches it or casts his shadow over it, it is defiled and he cannot eat it. In the army, therefore, strict arrangements have to be made about the food of the Hindoo Sepoys. Also both Hindoos and Mahomedans keep their women in seclusion, and this, with the caste system, makes private intercourse between the rulers and ruled very difficult; it is, indeed, mainly confined to sport.

In spite of these difficulties, a firm and just administration was established, and the Company's servants secured the reputation of absolute integrity and fairness among a population with the Eastern vices of lying and cheating. In the native states, too, the Company began to use its influence in favour of good government; but there it was a much longer business.

Also a beginning was made of giving a European educa-

tion to the natives, to enable them to take part in the government. The great historian, Lord Macaulay, then a rising literary man and politician, who was sent out in William IV.'s reign to help draw out a code of laws, took up this matter also. Some of the Indians, especially the Bengalees, are very quick in picking up our language, literature and history; but the result of this education has been disappointing; it cannot change their inherited character, and has made some of them discontented with our rule.

To help the poor cultivators of the soil, who from time to time suffer from terrible famines, caused by droughts, which sweep away hundreds of thousands, canals were made to bring water to crops.

Then there were some bad customs to be attacked. One was "suttee," the custom of widows burning themselves with their dead husbands, for the Hindoos burn their dead. This had nothing to do with religion, and was therefore suppressed. There was also the cruel custom of killing female infants. For, as it is a disgrace for a Hindoo woman not to be married, parents did not wish to have too many daughters. As the killing of infants, unlike suttee, can be done secretly, it was impossible to stamp it out; but it has been greatly checked. Thirdly there was a horrible pest, a religious sect of murderers called "Thugs," who strangled their victims with a cord for the sake of their money. As the Thugs were a very small sect, the Company disregarded their religion, and by sternly hanging them whenever caught, soon made Thuggism a thing of the past.

Russia and Afghanistan. The First Afghan War, 1838-1842. The Occupation of Kabul.—At the beginning of Victoria's reign the peace of India was broken by several wars. First came an Afghan war. Dost Mahomed, the Afghan Ameer at Kabul, being refused our help against the Sikhs, turned to the Russians, who, though the Turkestan desert lay between their Asiatic frontier and Afghan-

istan, had great influence in Persia. Now the Russians had long had a vague dream of invading India, and it is through Afghanistan that all invasions of India by land have taken place. So the Governor-General decided to depose Dost Mahomed, and set up in his place a rival prince called Shah Shujah, whom he had driven out.

An army of 15,000 men, starting at the end of 1838 and going round by Kandahar to avoid the Sikh territory, defeated the tribes on the way, and reached Kabul the next summer. Dost Mahomed fled, and Shah Shujah was set up as Ameer. The army then returned to India, leaving troops at Kabul, Kandahar, and other towns to maintain his rule, for the Afghans naturally hated an Ameer forced on them by us. There was disturbance in other parts of Afghanistan, but at Kabul for a time all went well, and Dost Mahomed in despair surrendered and was sent to India.

The troops at Kabul settled down to their life there; their wives and families joined them from India, and the officers amused themselves with race-meetings, dances, and the usual gay life of an Indian station, for two years. Then, in November 1841, the Kabulese rose in revolt and killed the British Resident. Soon the country round was up in arms; the British were worsted in the continual fighting, for the general in command was incompetent from age and infirmity.

The Retreat from Kabul and the Massacre, January 1842.—No help could be expected for a long time; provisions began to fail, the troops were losing heart, and it was decided to make terms with Dost Mahomed's son, Akbar Khan, who was in command. Though the British envoy was treacherously murdered during the negotiations, Akbar Khan's terms were accepted; the garrison were to have a safe retreat with an escort down the valley of the Kabul river to Peshawur, the Sikh frontier town, a hundred and fifty miles away; six officers were to be left as hostages, and all other troops were to retire from Afghan-

The Afghan town of Jellalabad.

istan. On January 6, 1842, the miserable retreat began amid jeers and insults from the triumphant Afghans. The force numbered 4000 fighting men, including 700 British, and 12,000 camp-followers, with women and children.

As it was midwinter, there was deep snow, which added to the sufferings of the Sepoys from the hot plains of India, and there were rocky passes on the route. Numbers perished from cold, and the very first day the rearguard was attacked and stragglers were murdered. Then, when the passes were reached, the real attack began ; and though Akbar Khan appeared more than once with excuses and fresh promises, and the general and many officers surrendered to him as hostages, with the officers' wives and children, the rest of the army was gradually massacred except one survivor, Dr. Brydon, who, wounded and exhausted, managed to reach Jellalabad, which was held by a British garrison half-way to Peshawur.

The Campaign of Retribution.—The garrison of Jellalabad refused to surrender to Akbar Khan, and, after a siege of three months, sallied out and totally defeated him. Two days after, a relieving force arrived under General Pollock. It was now determined to retire from Afghanistan. But first General Pollock, and General Nott, who was at Kandahar, marched to Kabul, each winning a victory on the way. As a punishment to the Afghans, the bazaar, or market, of Kabul was burnt. The captives, who had been sent away to the mountains to the north, were recovered. They had suffered great hardships, and the poor old general was dead ; but otherwise they had not been ill-treated, for Akbar Khan was keeping them as hostages for the safety of his father. As the unfortunate Shah Shujah had been murdered by his subjects, Dost Mahomed was sent back to his kingdom. So ended the miserable business of the First Afghan War. The Russians left Afghanistan alone, and there was no further trouble. But many years afterwards, as you will read, similar circumstances produced a Second Afghan War.

The Two Sikh Wars, 1845-1846.—The end of the war did not bring peace to India. First there were two little wars; Scinde, the district at the mouth of the Indus, was annexed after one battle; then a rising in the Mahratta state of Gwalior was suppressed. Next, owing to the death of our ally Ranjit Singh, came two fierce wars with the Sikhs of the Punjaub, very different to the Afghan war, for the Sikhs are brave and open fighters, and their army was well drilled and had plenty of cannons. At the end of 1845 they invaded our territory; but, after being beaten in four fiercely contested battles, they gave in, and a British Resident was appointed to direct the young ruler, Ranjit Singh's son.

But the Sikhs had not yet learned their lesson, and in the beginning of 1849 they rose again. The first battle was so doubtful that it was almost a British defeat; and when the news reached England, the old Duke said to Sir Charles Napier, the conqueror of Scinde, "Either you or I must go out at once." Sir Charles Napier went, but, when he arrived, the Sikhs had been totally defeated in another battle and the war was over. The Punjaub was now made into a province under the rule of the Company, and the young prince was pensioned off. Under an able governor, Sir John Lawrence, the Sikhs became reconciled to our rule; and, having proved our superiority in a fair trial of strength, they have ever since been proud to serve under the British flag, and, with the Goorkhas, are the backbone of our Indian army.

Canada. The Rising of 1837. Self-Government granted.—At the time of the Queen's accession there was trouble in Canada. Canada was indeed prosperous; many British emigrants had gone out to Upper Canada, and fresh lands were being steadily taken up. There were now about a million inhabitants, half British and half French, over a hundred thousand British being in French Lower Canada. But the French and British were unfriendly to one another; both were discontented with the limited freedom

given them, and in 1837 risings occurred in both provinces. They were feeble affairs, and easily put down, especially the one in the British province. The Earl of Durham, sent out as Governor, wrote a report after his return, recommending that full self-government should be given to Canada—but, to prevent the French in the Lower Province from oppressing the British, they were to be joined under one Parliament—and his report was adopted in 1841.

This form of Colonial Government, which has since been given to the other great colonies, is modelled on the British Constitution. That is, the Ministry, which depends on the support of the colonial House of Commons, really governs, and the Governor, who is sent from home, is in the position of the British sovereign. Only relations with foreign countries are managed by the Home Government; for it is the British fleet which protects the colonies against them. There is a small upper house, like the House of Lords. In Canada its members are nominated for life; in most other colonies they are elected. The Home Government was the more ready in those days to grant self-government to the colonies because it was thought, upon our experience in America, that in course of time, when strong enough, they would separate from the mother country. Ministries also at this time disliked extending the Empire, from the peace policy already mentioned; it was the energy of the people that was building up the Empire. This free constitution healed the discontent in Canada, though the difference in religion still caused difficulties. The French have ever since been loyal on the whole; and recently Canada had for many years a French prime minister.

British North America and the United States.—The West beyond Upper Canada was still the hunting-ground of Indians and of fur trappers, mostly belonging to the Hudson Bay Company, who claimed all this territory. Towards the end of George III.'s reign, Britain and the

United States settled their frontier as far as the Rocky Mountains; in 1846 it was extended to the Pacific, and the island of Vancouver was acknowledged by the United States as a British possession, though as yet there were very few settlers there.

The United States had now become a great nation. Its advance westward had been steady, and several fresh states as far as the Mississippi and Missouri had been added to the original thirteen. About the time of the second treaty with Britain, California on the Pacific coast was taken from Mexico; and almost immediately gold was found there, and adventurers from all parts flocked to the diggings. From this time began the great emigration from Europe to the United States, which still continues. By 1850 the population was over 20,000,000, almost as large as that of Great Britain.

South Africa. The Cape Colony and the Boers.—You have read how, when France seized Holland in the revolutionary war, Cape Colony was taken by the British, given back at the Treaty of Amiens, taken again in the Napoleonic war, and kept at the final peace.

The Cape of Good Hope, though discovered by the Portuguese, was never occupied by them. In the middle of the seventeenth century it was colonised by the Dutch East India Company as a half-way house to India; and the Dutch settlers were soon reinforced by French Huguenots, fleeing from the persecution of Louis XIV., when he revoked the Edict of Nantes. The land was good for farming; and the farmers were known as Boers (which means peasants, and is the same as the English "boor") to distinguish them from the traders and officials.

The British have had far more difficulties with the Boers than with the French of Canada. The Dutch have a very stubborn spirit of independence, as they showed by their revolt from Spain in the days of Elizabeth; and the Boers had chafed against the rule even of their own company. They liked to live independent on their own

farms, and in early days had begun to roam away from the neighbourhood of Cape Town into the interior.

After the British annexation a worse difficulty arose about the treatment of the natives. The Boers, like the English Puritans, took their religion from the Old Testament, and regarded themselves as the chosen people and the natives as the Canaanites, to be killed, or, like the Gibeonites, to be made "hewers of wood and drawers of water"—that is, slaves. But the British, according to their usual practice, enrolled the natives as police. In 1818 a Boer resisted arrest by some native police, and was shot; whereupon his neighbours took up arms. The result was that five Boers were hanged for rebellion by orders of the Governor, though both Dutch and British made a strong appeal for mercy. This harsh act was never forgiven by the Boers, who called the place "Slachter's Nek" (Slaughter Pass).

Moreover, at this time, the Anti-Slavery Association was working at home for the abolition of slavery, and British missionaries in the Cape Colony irritated the Boers by sending home accounts of their harshness to the natives. Finally, in 1833, came the Abolition of Slavery; and, though compensation was given, the difficulties in obtaining it were very great, and the Boers hardly got half what was due to them. So great was the discontent that soon many of them began to roam away to the north, to found new homes far from the hated British rule. This is known as the "Great Trek," as to "trek" is the Dutch for to travel. It had a very important result on the future history of South Africa, and to understand what happened, you must know something about the native tribes.

The Natives of South Africa. The Zulu Army.—When the Dutch originally came to the Cape, the only natives in those parts were Bushmen, short yellow men who lived only by hunting, like the old Stone men of Britain, and Hottentots, rather more advanced, probably a cross between them and the negroes. The Bushmen and

Hottentots were few in number and no danger to the Boers.

But further north were numerous tribes of a branch of the negro race, known to Europeans as Kaffirs. Some of these Kaffirs, pushing down south, came into collision with the Boers towards the end of the eighteenth century; and the British in their turn had many wars with them; indeed, though conquered now, they are still a possible danger. The Kaffirs are a far finer race than the Hottentots, and the finest of them all are the Zulus dwelling north of Natal.

Early in the nineteenth century there arose a great chief among the Zulus named Chaka, who drilled them into a strong army, and then fell on his neighbours with savage ferocity, wiping out tribe after tribe, except such as fled before him, and leaving Natal, and what was afterwards the Transvaal, utterly desolate. One Zulu chief rebelled against Chaka, went off with his followers, whom you will later on hear of as the Matabele, and fell upon the Bechuana, a Kaffir tribe north of the Orange River.

The Great Trek, 1836. Foundation of the Boer States and of Natal. The Boers and the Zulus.—It was to the lands left desolate by the Zulus and Matabele that the trekking Boers went off. They journeyed in small bands, riding on horses, with their families and goods in wagons drawn by long teams of oxen, the only conveyances in South Africa in those days.

The first band crossed the Orange River, where they founded the Orange State, obtaining land from the surviving Bechuana by promising to protect them from their cruel foes. They soon beat the Matabele, and drove them away further to the northward, where we shall hear of them again. The Boer way of fighting was to join their wagons into a circle or "lager" (which means a camp), from inside which they shot down the charging natives, who fought only with shields and spears.

Other bands of Boers pressed on over the mountains into

Natal, where there was a small British settlement on the coast at Durban. The leader, with sixty followers, visited Dingaan, Chaka's brother, who was now king of the Zulus. He received them with pretended friendship, and gave them all the land they wanted. But when they went to bid him farewell, his warriors by his orders killed them to a man. Then the Zulu army marched into Natal, and surprised the first encampment they came to, killing forty men and over two hundred women and children. Three Boers, however, rode off with the news to the other camps, and they were able to beat off the Zulus.

After more fighting, the Boers, aided by their brethren from beyond the mountains, defeated Dingaan, and finally, aided by a revolted Zulu chief, drove him from the country, and he was killed by a hostile tribe. "Dingaan's Day," on which he was defeated, is still remembered by the Boers.

After the defeat of the Zulus numbers of Kaffirs had poured into Natal, and in 1843 the Home Government, wishing to protect them, after much hesitation declared Natal a British colony. After some fighting at Durban the Boers submitted; but many of them, a few years later, trekked off again over the mountains, and settled beyond the Vaal River. This was the origin of the Transvaal.

In the Cape Colony both British and Dutch were irritated by the mild treatment of the ever-rebellious Kaffirs on which the Home Government insisted. Then in 1847 an energetic soldier, Sir Harry Smith, came out as Governor and changed things. He also annexed the Orange State, to make it easier to deal with the natives on its borders. Some of the Boers resisted, and being beaten, went off to the Transvaal. He, however, was recalled, and a few years later the Home Government, owing to the feeling against extending the Empire, gave up the Orange State, which was now called the Orange Free State.

Such was the troubled history of our early rule in South

Africa. There were now four states;—two British, Cape Colony reaching to the Orange River, with a Dutch population larger than the British and not very loyal; Natal, mainly British; and two Boer states, the Transvaal and Orange Free State, both more or less unfriendly. Had the Home Government understood more the real state of things, and been firmer to the natives and more sympathetic to the Boers, all would have been under the

Sydney in 1798.

British flag. As it was, there were more troubles to come before that could come about.

Australia. Growth of New South Wales. Sheep-breeding and Free Settlers.—Very different has been the history of Australia. With no white race already in possession, and little difficulty with the natives, the advance of Australia after the troubles of the early convict days has been steady and peaceful. The greatest difficulty has been the terrible droughts which occur from time to time, and sometimes last for several years. For a long time

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New South Wales was the only colony; it was supposed to include all the east of Australia, but only the district round Sydney was settled. The first great step in its advance was the starting of sheep-breeding at the beginning of the nineteenth century. The grass plains are very suitable for sheep, and the export of wool is now the chief trade of Australia.

Another advance was made in 1813, when at last a way was found across the Blue Mountains, which shut in the settlement fifty miles from the coast. Splendid pasture-land for sheep was discovered on the grass downs beyond the mountains. More exploration followed, and great rivers flowing down to the southern coast were discovered with more pasture-land. The next advance was made when, about 1820, owing to the depression in trade at home after the Great Peace, a stream of free emigrants began to come out. In ten years the population was 60,000; in twenty 150,000, of whom only 27,000 were convicts.

As the settlement was changing its character, a change was made in the Government. In 1823 the Governor was given a council of twelve members nominated by the Crown to advise him. Then, as the number of colonists increased, they naturally demanded more freedom; so in 1842 they were given a Legislative Council of thirty-six members of whom twenty-four were elected; and finally, twelve years later, complete self-government, as in Canada, was granted.

Beginnings of the other Australian Colonies.—The first settlement outside New South Wales was the island of Van Diemen's Land, now Tasmania. In 1803 an expedition of two ships was sent from home to make a new convict settlement at Port Phillip (where Melbourne now is), from fear that the French might occupy it. But the first landing-place was in a bad locality, and early the next year the expedition went off to the more attractive Van Diemen's Land, where the settlement was started at Hobart town, named after the Colonial Secretary of the

day, and now the capital. Van Diemen's Land was for some years under New South Wales; but as free emigrants soon came to it, it was made into a separate colony. It was found more suitable for farming than sheep-breeding.

It was nearly thirty years before the first settlements were made which became the other four colonies, Victoria, Queensland, South Australia and West Australia. Queensland was started in 1826 by a convict settlement at what became its capital, Brisbane, two hundred and fifty miles north of Sydney. This was given up in 1840, but meanwhile settlers had made their way from the south to the country inland known as the Darling Downs.

Victoria was started in 1835 by a few settlers from Tasmania, who found good land a little way inland from Port Phillip. One of them bought 600,000 acres from the blacks for a few trinkets and blankets; but the others disputed his extravagant claim, and finally the Sydney Government stepped in and said the land belonged to the State. In the end the settlers were allowed to keep the land they had actually occupied. More settlers came in and took up land, and the town of Melbourne (named after the Prime Minister) was laid out a few miles from Port Phillip.

Both these settlements too were at first merely parts of New South Wales. But, as they grew, they demanded separation, which was granted by the Home Government to Victoria in 1851 and Queensland in 1859, both loyally taking their names from Queen Victoria.

Western Australia, in the extreme south-west, and South Australia, on the west border of Victoria, were founded by Companies from England, the first a little before, the second a little after Victoria. The Western Australian settlement was Perth, at the mouth of the Swan River (so called from its black swans, which are peculiar to Australia). The land, however, is poor there, and the settlement advanced but slowly.

The South Australian settlement was called Adelaide,

after William IV.'s queen. Though the Company mismanaged affairs at first, South Australia soon began to prosper. These colonies were given self-government at the same time as New South Wales, except Western Australia, which was not enough advanced for it till many years later.

The Natives. Bushrangers. End of the Transportation of Convicts.—The natives, as has been said, were no great difficulty. They were not badly disposed to the white men; but the early settlers, the convicts and the soldiers, who were the dregs of the British army, treated them brutally, and they, like savages, retaliated with treacherous murders. So trouble began, and the settlers often shot them down like animals at sight. Tasmania from its small size had the most trouble; but at last the survivors, some two hundred in number, consented to be shipped off to a little island, where the poor creatures pined away and died. At the present day the blacks are used as servants in the north, where they are numerous.

A greater trouble than the blacks were the outlaws, or "bushrangers" as they were called, the "bush" being the Australian word for the wild country. In the early days they were escaped convicts. Armed and mounted, for they were always horse-thieves, they terrorised the scattered stations, and were hard to catch in the vast extent of wild country. Bushranging was not finally put down till towards the end of the century.

Convicts who had served their time were freed, and many of them took up land and became rich. They were not indeed all actual criminals, as during the political troubles at home persons were transported for what was called "sedition." At the request of the colonists no more convicts were sent to New South Wales after 1840. The Home Government, however, still clung to the system of transportation: once it tried to send convicts to the Cape, but the colonists would not have them. A few years later Western Australia was glad to receive convicts owing

to its want of labour, and Van Diemen's Land, which greatly disliked them, did not get rid of them till 1853. It was from joy at becoming a "free" state that it changed its name to Tasmania. Western Australia found its convicts useful, though at times troublesome, and continued to receive them till transportation was abolished in England in 1868.

The Gold Discoveries, 1851. The Rush to Victoria.—The great event in the history of Australia is the discovery of gold. Gold had been found in New South Wales from time to time, but never worked. But in February 1851, when people were going off to the newly-discovered Californian gold-fields, a miner, who had come back from California, found a gold-field, and there was such a rush to it that there was a scarcity of labour on the stations. But this was only the beginning. Before the end of the year a far richer gold-field was found in Victoria at Ballarat, and others equally rich were found later. The rush was now to Victoria, not only from the other colonies, but from Britain and foreign countries; and its population, which was 75,000 in 1850, in five years had risen to over 300,000. Thus Victoria, owing to its gold-fields, began to rival the parent colony of New South Wales in wealth and population, and ever since they have been the two leading colonies of Australia.

New Zealand and the Maoris.—Though Captain Cook had hoisted the British flag in New Zealand, no attempt was made to colonise the islands. But after the colonisation of New South Wales, ships, mostly whalers, began to touch at the North Island. The Maoris, as the natives of New Zealand are called, are of quite a different race from the Australians. They are a fine intelligent people, more honourable than most savages, but in those days fierce and cruel. And as the sailors, ignorant and often brutal men, ill-treated them imagining them no better than the Australians, the Maoris of course took revenge, and, regarding all white men as enemies, more than once

massacred a whole ship's crew. At last in 1814 some missionaries made a settlement to try to keep the peace

Maoris. Showing the strange carvings of their huts.

between the whites and the Maoris, but they were not very successful. Then in William IV.'s reign the British

Ministry appointed two magistrates from New South Wales who did little better. Finally, when a British New Zealand Company was started, the Ministry in 1840 sent out a Lieutenant-Governor, who proclaimed the Queen's sovereignty over New Zealand, as part of New South Wales, to the relief of the Maoris, who were tired of the continual trouble, and the next year it was made a separate colony.

The Land Disputes and Maori Wars.—The only difficulty henceforth with the Maoris was about the land, for by their law, which the Governor had recognised, the land of each tribe belonged to all members of the tribe, and could not be sold without their consent. But Companies bought large tracts from the chiefs, and other settlers did the same, often from ignorance. The Governors did their best to settle the trouble, but quarrels broke out, causing wars, which did not end till 1870. In these wars the Maoris made strong fortifications called "pahs," which gave our troops the greatest trouble to take. The Maoris, most of whom are in the northern island, now have their own district secured to them, and send four members to the New Zealand Parliament. So loyal have they become that they were eager to fight for the Queen against the Boers; but we could not use them against white men.

With a delightful climate and fertile soil New Zealand prospered exceedingly. In 1852 the white settlers numbered 27,000, the Maoris double that number.

Besides the great colonies, there are a few other settlements to be mentioned. In Asia the little island of Singapore in the Straits of Malacca was purchased in 1819 from a native prince, and soon became the centre of a large Eastern trade. Aden, at the mouth of the Red Sea, was occupied in 1839 as a naval station. Sarawak, a district in the island of Borneo, was granted in 1841 by a native sultan to an Englishman, Sir James Brooke, as Rajah, for helping him to put down a rebellion, and it is still ruled by one of his family. Finally, ill-treatment of British merchants caused two wars between the Indian Govern-

ment and Burmah, the first in George IV.'s reign, the second in 1852, and we annexed the coast districts.

The only other Power that was extending oversea at this time was France. At the beginning of William IV.'s reign the French conquered and occupied Algiers, one of the Arab states on the north coast of Africa, owing to the ill-treatment of their merchants. At the present day it is a peaceful and flourishing French dependency.

SUMMARY.

Britain supreme in India; our great difficulties and work there—Supposed danger from Russia and the First Afghan War; the disastrous retreat from Kabul, and Afghan treachery; the Campaign of Retribution—The Sikh Wars and conquest of the Punjaub.

Canada; the rising of 1837, and grant of self-government—British North America and the United States.

South Africa; difficulties with the Boers—The Great Trek and the Zulus—Foundation of the Orange Free State, Transvaal and Natal.

Australia; early history of New South Wales—Origin of Victoria and the other states—The natives; bushranging; and the convict question—The discovery of gold—New Zealand and the Maoris—Other settlements—The French in North Africa.

DATES.

1836. The Great Trek.
1841. Self-Government given to Canada.
1851. Discovery of gold in Australia.

CHAPTER LXII

Victoria, 1837-1901

(II)

The Crimean War and Indian Mutiny. Lord Palmerston

The Eastern Question again. The Tsar Nicholas's Designs against Turkey.—Less than two years after the Exhibition the awakening from the dream of peace came, and it came from the old troublesome "Eastern Question," stirred up by the ambitions of two monarchs, the Tsar Nicholas of Russia and the Emperor Napoleon. The trouble began with a very trivial matter, an old quarrel in the Holy Land, which belongs to Turkey, between the monks of the Roman and the Greek Churches, as to which should have custody of the church at Bethlehem and other holy places. But before this question was settled the Tsar also demanded that he should be recognised as the Protector of all the Christian subjects of the Sultan.

The fact was that the Tsar thought it a good opportunity to renew the old Russian policy of attacking Turkey. Some years before he had paid a visit to the Queen, whom he much impressed by his fine courtly manners; and he had talked with Lord Aberdeen, at that time Sir Robert Peel's foreign secretary, and told him that Turkey could not last much longer, and that it would be better if Russia and Britain could settle together what should be done with Turkey's possessions. Whatever Lord Aberdeen said, the Tsar came away with the impression that Britain would

not oppose his designs, and in any case would not go to war. At the beginning of the year 1853 he discussed the subject of the "sick man," as he called Turkey, with the British ambassador at St. Petersburg, and suggested that in case of his "decease" Britain could have Egypt as her share. And he was quite surprised when a reply came from the British Ministry that they had no intention of discussing the division of the territories of a friendly Power. Lord Palmerston and our ambassador to Turkey wanted to make a firm resistance to the Tsar's demands. So did the Emperor Napoleon, who was anxious to strengthen his position in France by some striking success. But the peace-loving Lord Aberdeen disliked doing anything that seemed warlike. Events, however, proved too strong for him. The Sultan refused the Tsar's demand, and the Tsar declared that he would occupy the Turkish provinces north of the Danube (now Roumania) till his demand was granted.

Drifting into War.—In the summer there was a Conference at Vienna of Britain, France, Austria and Prussia. But it could not settle the difficulty, and in September the British and French squadrons were sent through the Dardanelles to Constantinople, where, owing to religious riots, attacks on the Christians were feared. In October Turkey at last declared war on Russia and attacked the Russian troops on the Danube. Thereupon, at the end of November, the Russian Black Sea fleet attacked and destroyed a much weaker Turkish squadron in the harbour of Sinope, killing most of the men to the number of four thousand. This caused such excitement in Britain that Lord Aberdeen was forced to allow the allied fleet to enter the Black Sea. Thus by the end of the year the country was drifting into war. "Here am I," said Lord Aberdeen bitterly, "with one foot in the grave, forced on to that bloodshed against which, through my public career, I have successfully struggled."

Britain and France declare War on Russia. The Crimean

War, 1854-1856.—Both Britain and Russia had gone so far that neither could with honour draw back. In the winter British troops were sent to Malta, the Guards leaving London amid great enthusiasm; and in February 1854 Lord Aberdeen had to take the final step. France and Britain formally threatened war if the Russians did not withdraw from the provinces. The Tsar refused to comply, and war was declared at the end of March. The great majority of the nation was in favour of the war; but some of the Radicals, led by Cobden and Bright, were strongly against it.

It was many months before the fighting began. A splendid fleet was sent to the Baltic; but the Russian fleet remained in the harbour of Cronstadt (the port of St. Petersburg), which was too strongly fortified to be attacked.

In May the Russians crossed the Danube, so the French and British forces began to collect at Varna, a port on the coast south of the Danube, the British being under the command of Lord Raglan, a veteran of the Peninsula and of Waterloo, where he had lost an arm. But, before they could take the field, the Russians had been driven across the Danube again; and soon afterwards, as the Emperor of Austria was collecting an army on his frontier, the Tsar withdrew his troops altogether, and the war in Turkey came to an end in June.

Landing in the Crimea, and Battle of the Alma, September 1854.—But, as the Russian Black Sea fleet would still be a danger to Turkey, France and Britain decided to take Sebastopol, the great naval fortress in the Crimea. It was not till September that the expedition was ready to sail from Varna, numbering about 25,000 British, 50,000 French, and 11,000 Turks. The troops were glad to leave Varna, for they had suffered terribly from cholera there. The Russian fleet, too weak to resist the fleet of the Allies, had retired into the harbour of Sebastopol, and the troops landed without opposition on

an open beach thirty miles north of the fortress. On their march along the coast they found the Russian army, 40,000 strong, drawn up in a strong position behind a little river called the Alma; but after a sharp battle, in which most of the fighting fell to the British, they drove them off with considerable loss.

Siege of Sebastopol. Unsuccessful Bombardment, October.—The road was now clear to Sebastopol, which lies on the south side of its harbour, a broad inlet five miles long. So the Allies marched round and took up their position to the south of the town, the French on the left and the British on the right. At the same time the Russian general marched out with most of his forces, so as to be able to attack the Allies from the outside. As the Russians had blocked the entrance of the harbour by sinking men-

of-war, it was impossible to surround Sebastopol and starve it out; the only course was to bombard and storm the fortifications. It was some time before the siege guns arrived and the trenches and batteries were constructed, and meantime the Russians had been busy strengthening their works and mounting more guns. They said afterwards that, if the Allies had stormed at once, they would have taken Sebastopol, but this is very doubtful.

In the middle of October Sebastopol was bombarded by sea and land. But the fleet suffered more loss than it inflicted, for ships cannot do much against forts; and on land the chief French magazine was blown up. So the bombardment was a failure, and the assault did not take place.

Russian Attack on the Allied Position. Battle of Balaklava, October.—Then came two battles. At the end of October the Russian outside army suddenly crossed a little river that runs into the harbour to attack Balaklava, a small port five miles from the camp, where the British supplies were landed. They captured some outlying redoubts, after a brave resistance from the Turks, who defended Balaklava. Some Russian cavalry threatened Balaklava itself, but were easily repulsed by a regiment of Highlanders there. The first of the allied troops to come up were the British cavalry. The Heavy Brigade, nine hundred strong, charged some very numerous Russian cavalry, and completely routed them. Then Lord Raglan sent an order to the Light Brigade, six hundred strong, to charge and retake the captured cannons. Unfortunately, owing to a misunderstanding, the commander sent them against twelve Russian cannons at the end of a valley. It was truly a "valley of death," as Tennyson wrote in his "Charge of the Light Brigade," for on both sides of the valley were Russian troops and more cannons. But down it the six hundred rode, "stormed at with shot and shell," and charged right into the cannons at the end. But their twenty-minutes

charge had cost them two hundred and fifty killed and wounded and about five hundred horses: they could do no more, and had to return as best they could. The charge was a glorious deed of war, but of little use.

This ended the battle; the Russians made no further advance, as the allied infantry were coming up. The whole Highland Brigade now was stationed at Balaklava, and no more attacks were made on it.

The Great Russian Stroke. Battle of Inkerman, November.—Ten days afterwards came the battle of Inkerman, the fiercest of all the Crimean battles. The Tsar, who had been furious at the news of his defeat at the Alma, had been hurrying troops to the Crimea, till the Russians were far more numerous than the Allies. A great attack was to be made by 40,000 men on the extreme right of the British beyond their entrenchments, and the presumptuous foe was to be driven into the sea. On the morning of November 5, in misty weather, the Second Division, which was encamped on a narrow ridge overlooking the river, was suddenly assailed. It was all hard hand-to-hand fighting, without manœuvring—a true soldiers' battle. The Russians were badly commanded; they could not use their numbers properly on the narrow ground; and the British, in spite of terrible losses, stubbornly held their ground. The Guards, encamped a mile behind, were the first supports to come up; then other divisions, and finally, a large French division. By eleven o'clock all was over, and the Russians retreated with the terrible loss of 12,000, nearly as many as all the Allies engaged, who numbered 7000 British and 6000 French.

The Crimean Winter. Mismanagement and Sufferings of the Troops.—The great Russian stroke had failed; but the attack on Sebastopol had been put off, and the armies had to face the prospect of wintering in the Crimea. Unfortunately, owing to the long peace, the arrangements for feeding and supplying our army were very bad: the only transport consisted of carts and animals seized in the

Crimea. To make things worse, some days after the battle there was a terrible gale with a deluge of rain. The tents were blown down and the camps flooded; and, worst of all, over twenty ships were wrecked, containing supplies of all sorts—ammunition, warm clothing for the troops, and twenty days' hay for the horses. From that day the sufferings of our army began. The camps were all mud and slush, and the men could not cook their food properly. They had often, too, to go themselves through the mud to Balaklava to fetch their food, as the horses were dying from want of fodder; and owing to our few numbers, they had to spend five nights out of six guarding the trenches, which were half full of water; and there was continual fighting with the Russian advanced posts.

These hardships naturally caused terrible sickness, and by the end of November 9000 men were in hospital. The chief hospital was at Scutari, a suburb of Constantinople on the opposite side of the strait. Here the mismanagement was just as bad, and the condition of the sick was terrible. To remedy this, the Government sent out a lady, Miss Florence Nightingale, with a number of nurses. By her skill and unselfish self-devotion she in time put things right, and her name will never be forgotten.

It so happened that the winter was very severe—in England it was known as the Crimean winter—so the troops suffered terribly from the loss of the warm clothing. Lord Raglan did what he could. He procured some warm clothing from Constantinople, built huts for the men, started making a road from Balaklava to the camp, but had not enough men for the work. By the end of January 1855 he had only 11,000 men fit for service; nearly 9000 had died from disease alone.

The French, too, had suffered, though not so severely as the British, for their arrangements were better. They had also been more largely reinforced, and numbered about 60,000 men; so Lord Raglan now arranged with the French general that they should take over our right

attack. The French now were on the two wings and the British in the centre. Fresh supplies arrived from England, including many comforts for the men, and also navvies, who made a railway from Balaklava to the camp.

Indignation in England. Defeat of Lord Aberdeen. Lord Palmerston becomes Prime Minister, 1855.—The British had begun the war in confidence that Sebastopol would soon be taken, and their disappointment turned into indignation against the Ministry when they heard of the sufferings of the army. In former wars the only news came from the generals' reports and from private letters; but in this war, for the first time, the newspapers sent out correspondents, and the correspondent of *The Times*, Dr. Russell, wrote long and detailed accounts of the state of the army, so that every one knew about it. In February 1855, soon after Parliament had assembled, a Whig member of the House of Commons moved that a Committee of Inquiry should be appointed. The Ministry opposed the motion; but it was supported by many of their followers, and was carried by the huge majority of 157. Such was the end of Lord Aberdeen's "strong" Ministry, after a life of two years.

The nation naturally looked to Lord Palmerston, the one strong minister, and the Queen had to send for him. Thus by a turn of fortune Lord Palmerston became Prime Minister three years after his disgrace, and remained so, with only a short interval, till his death ten years later. His Ministry was at first the old one with a new Prime Minister and new War Secretary; but some Peelites, including Gladstone, resigned at once, because Lord Palmerston found himself forced to accept the Committee of Inquiry. From this time the Peelites came to an end as a separate party, and gradually became Liberals or Conservatives, as those parties now definitely called themselves.

Failure of the First Assault, June. Death of Lord Raglan.—Energetic measures were now taken to put the

army in a proper condition, and reinforcements were steadily sent out. At the beginning of February the Tsar died of an illness aggravated by his failure. His son and successor, Alexander II., was less warlike and ambitious; and there was another Conference at Vienna, but it failed to bring about peace.

In March a Russian attack on the trenches of the Allies was repulsed. Early in June the allies stormed some of the Russian outworks, and on the eighteenth, after another furious bombardment, the assault took place; but, owing to the mismanagement of the French, it was repulsed with heavy loss. Broken down by the failure, Lord Raglan died a few days afterwards of cholera.

But the Russian losses during the bombardment had been terrible. "Losses!" said a Russian officer to a British one during a burial truce after the assault, "you do not know what the word means. You should see our batteries; the dead lie there in heaps and heaps." As the allied works crept nearer and nearer, the Russian general saw that something must be done to save the town; and in August the outside army made a final attempt to cross the river against Balaklava, but was defeated by some French and 15,000 Sardinians, for the King of Sardinia had joined the alliance this year, in order to get French aid against Austria later on.

The Final Assault; Abandonment of Sebastopol by the Russians, September.—This defeat sealed the fate of Sebastopol, and the Russian general began preparations for abandoning it. On September 8, after a final three days' bombardment, to which the Russians could only reply feebly, the second assault took place. The French, who had pushed close up to an important fort called the Malakoff, took it after desperate fighting; but the British, who could not get so close to the fort they were to attack owing to the rocky ground, were repulsed. However, the French success was sufficient. That night continual explosions were heard: the Russians were

blowing up their magazines. Next morning it was seen that they had crossed to the north side of the harbour by a bridge of boats, and the ruins of Sebastopol were in the hands of the Allies.

It was now too late in the year for attack on the Russian army, which was in a strongly fortified position, and our troops, now numbering over 50,000 and in splendid condition, had to spend another winter in the Crimea; but they spent it in comfort. The year ended with a Russian success in Asia Minor, where they captured the frontier fortress of Kars, in spite of the gallant defence of the Turks under a British general.

Peace made, 1856. Uselessness of the War.—During the winter, negotiations began. The Emperor of Austria was again working for peace; the new Tsar knew that Russia was too exhausted for another campaign; and the Emperor Napoleon was tired of the war, having obtained all he wanted, which was glory. But the British were eager to retrieve their failure, and Lord Palmerston wanted a campaign in Asia Minor to recover Kars. But in the end a Congress at Paris, after a month's discussion, arranged terms of peace which both the Tsar and Britain accepted. Sebastopol was not to be refortified, and neither Russia nor Turkey were to keep men-of-war in the Black Sea; while, as before, no other power was to send men-of-war into it. The Tsar was to have no rights of protection over the Christians in Turkey, but the Sultan promised to treat them better.

The war added forty millions to our National Debt, which, however, had been somewhat reduced since Waterloo. It cost the country 24,000 men, three-quarters of whom died of disease. It is thought that Russia lost no less than 150,000 men in the Crimea, and perhaps as many more from hardships on the long marches from the distant provinces to the Crimea.

After all, the Turks did not mend their ways and improve the condition of the Christians, and later on, as

you will read, Russia found an opportunity to free herself from the treaty, and the "Eastern Question" returned to trouble us again. So people now say that the Crimean War was a mistake. Britain may have been wrong thus to oppose the Tsar's designs; but it was Lord Aberdeen's peace policy that encouraged him in those designs. Had Lord Palmerston been Prime Minister, there would probably have been no war.

Defeat of Lord Palmerston on the China War; and his Triumph in a General Election, 1857.—The nation soon showed in a striking way that it approved of Lord Palmerston's policy. A trivial dispute arose between the British Governor of Hong-Kong and China, and war followed. It seems that the action of our Governor was high-handed and illegal, and the Radicals, Peelites, and some Liberals, led by Lord John Russell, joined the Conservatives in attacking the Ministry, and won by a small majority. Lord Palmerston, however, appealed to the nation by a General Election, and gained a great victory. A force of 5000 men was sent out to the Chinese War; but when they reached Singapore, they received urgent orders to proceed to Calcutta, for the great Indian Mutiny had broken out, and Britain, one year after the peace with Russia, was fighting against fearful odds to maintain her dominion in India.

India. The Danger from the Native Army.—The outbreak took the British absolutely by surprise. Since the conquest of the Mahrattas and Sikhs, the British rule had been firmly established, and India had been in profound peace.

The late Governor-General, Lord Dalhousie, an able but masterful ruler, had indeed caused some irritation among some of the native princes, especially by making Oude a British province after deposing the nabob, owing to his bad rule. But when Lord Dalhousie's successor, Lord Canning, son of George IV.'s Prime Minister, went out in 1856, all seemed well.

The real danger was in the native army, which now numbered 230,000 men to less than 40,000 British. Moreover, at the end of 1856 a force had been sent against the Persians, who had attacked and taken Herat, the "Key of India." At the beginning of 1857 there were signs of secret discontent in the Bengal native army, which garrisoned all northern India. It was discovered that little cakes called "chupatties" were being passed about among the natives as tokens that something was going to happen. There seems to have been a plot to drive out the British, for it was a hundred years since the battle of Plassey, and there was a prophecy that our rule would only last a century. Still the British officers in the Sepoy regiments believed absolutely in the loyalty of their men, and would not take any precautions.

The Greased Cartridges.—The actual outbreak came from a different cause, the famous "greased cartridges." A cartridge is a little cylinder attached to the bullet; the soldier had to bite off the end of the cartridge, which in those days was of paper, pour the powder into the barrel of his gun, and then ram down the bullet after it. At this time a new gun, the "Enfield," named after the town where the Government gun-factory is, was being introduced into the British army, and at the beginning of the year 1857 some Sepoy regiments were given Enfields. The cartridges were rather different to those of the old muskets, and the Sepoys objected to them, declaring that they were greased with a mixture of cows' fat and lard; for the pig is unclean to Mahomedans as to Jews, while the cow is sacred to the Hindoos, and any one who touched its flesh lost his caste. The Hindoos indeed believed that it was a plot of the British to force them to become Christians by depriving them of their caste. As some small disturbances took place near Calcutta, the Government proclaimed that no cows' fat or lard were used, but in vain. Indeed, it seems that by some mistake they had been used in one case.

The Indian Mutiny, 1857-1858. Outbreak at Meerut, May 1857. Delhi seized and the Mogul proclaimed.—At last, in the garrison of Meerut, forty miles from Delhi, eighty-five Sepoys refused to use the new cartridges. They were tried by a court of native officers, and condemned to ten years' imprisonment for mutiny. To impress the other Sepoys, a parade was held of the whole garrison, two British regiments, cavalry and infantry, with artillery, and three native regiments, one cavalry and two infantry. The sentence was read, and the mutineers were stripped of their uniforms, chained, and led off to the prison. They appealed to their comrades for aid, but not a man moved; and the general reported to the Government that the affair had gone off successfully.

But the next day, Sunday, May 10, the three regiments suddenly broke out in the evening. The cavalry galloped to the camp of the British to seize their arms while they were at church. But the service was later than usual owing to the heat, and the British, hearing firing, had turned back. So the cavalry rode off to the prison, which was guarded only by Sepoys, and released all the prisoners, a thousand in number. Meanwhile the two infantry regiments rushed on to their parade-ground firing their guns. The British officers came out, but the Sepoys told them to go away, as the British rule was over. They would not shoot their own officers, but soon the men of each regiment shot the officers of the other. Then they rushed off yelling, set fire to the officers' bungalows, killing women and children and every white person they met, and finally marched off with shouts of "To Delhi! to Delhi!" The British general, taken by surprise, made no attempt to stop them, and when he sent the cavalry after them it was too late.

At Delhi there were no British regiments, and the Sepoys at once joined the mutineers, shot the British officers on duty, and proclaimed the Mogul Emperor. The surviving officers, twenty in number, got together

the women and children, and succeeded in reaching a tower outside the walls; and in the night, when no help came from Meerut, they escaped with the women and children in carts, just as the Sepoys were coming to attack them.

Spread of the Mutiny. Lucknow and Cawnpore.—There is little doubt that the outbreak at Meerut took the conspirators by surprise; they were not yet ready for the general rising. So the other mutinies did not take place at once, but from time to time during the next six weeks. This was fortunate for the British, who thus had warning. In some places the mutinies were crushed; in others the British were able to maintain themselves till relieved; in some, especially where the British officers persisted in trusting their men, they and the women and children were massacred. Not a few, however, were saved by loyal native servants or sheltered in villages till the trouble was over; and some Sepoy regiments remained loyal.

After Meerut and Delhi, the most important scenes of the Mutiny were at Lucknow, the capital of Oude, and Cawnpore, on the Ganges, fifty miles to the west. At Lucknow, Sir Henry Lawrence, the Resident in Oude, brother of John Lawrence, had a single British regiment, and a detachment of it was at Cawnpore. The Sepoys at Lucknow mutinied at the end of May, but Lawrence was able to prevent a massacre. At Cawnpore the British threw themselves into a hastily formed entrenchment. Near Cawnpore dwelt a Mahratta prince, Nana Sahib, who had a grievance against the Government: he took command of the rebels, and led them against Cawnpore instead of going off to Delhi. It was round these three cities—Delhi, Lucknow and Cawnpore—that the war of the Mutiny was fought and won.

In the Punjaub, owing to the resolution of Sir John Lawrence and the officers under him, and the loyalty of the Sikhs, who hate the Bengal Hindoos and regard mutiny as disgraceful, there was little danger. At the two

chief camps the Sepoys were disarmed in a very skilful way, before they were ready to mutiny. They were ordered to parade early in the morning, and found themselves fronted by the few British troops with cannons loaded with grape-shot. They were then ordered to pile arms, and disobedience would have meant slaughter. Thus deprived of their arms, they were disbanded. The Bombay and Madras armies remained loyal. So did the chief native rulers, but some of their troops in Central India joined the rebels.

The Afghans would have liked to take the chance of attacking the hated British, but Dost Mahomed kept them quiet; he was friendly now, owing to our war with Persia.

The British Measures against Delhi and the Oude Mutineers.—When the mutineers seized Delhi, the commander-in-chief, who was in the hills of the North-West on a tour of inspection, at once made preparations to retake it with the few troops he had with him and a force sent from the Punjaub. He, however, himself soon died of cholera, always a danger in India. At the same time the Governor-General, Lord Canning, at Calcutta had to secure the city and the neighbouring garrisons and prepare to send help to Oude. A British regiment that arrived from Madras advanced up the Ganges valley in June and secured the important city of Allahabad, where a Sikh regiment was holding out, five hundred miles from Calcutta and a hundred from Cawnpore. Later on, some of the troops who had been in the Persian War arrived at Allahabad. And at the end of June General Havelock, who had been in that war, arrived to take command for the relief of Cawnpore. Unfortunately by that time it was too late.

The Massacre of Cawnpore and Siege of Lucknow.—For three weeks the British at Cawnpore held out in their feeble entrenchment, crowded together, men, women and children, in the burning heat, with water difficult to get.

Just before Havelock took up his command, Nana Sahib offered to send them down the Ganges in boats to Allahabad, and, as they heard no news of relief, they accepted his offer. Surrender was followed by the same result as at Kabul. As soon as the British were packed in the boats, the Sepoys on the river bank began to shoot them down. After a time Nana Sahib had the surviving women and children brought to shore and kept them as prisoners, to the number of a hundred and fifty. Of the men only four succeeded in escaping.

Then the Sepoys closed round Lucknow, where the British, with a few hundred loyal Sepoys, entrenched themselves in the Residency buildings. Very soon Sir Henry Lawrence was killed by a shell that burst in the room where he was sitting. But his successor was a resolute officer, and every attempt of the besiegers was repulsed, in spite of their overwhelming numbers.

Siege and Capture of Delhi; June to September.—At the beginning of June the British appeared before Delhi, and after a victory, encamped on a ridge about a mile from the northern wall. They were only 3000 strong, with no siege cannons to attack a city with walls seven miles in extent, defended by 30,000 mutineers. So for a long time they were content with beating off the attacks of the enemy. By the end of July they were 10,000 strong, and some weeks later the siege cannons arrived. It was high time that Delhi should be taken; and after a week's bombardment, the walls were breached. The general in command still hesitated, but, owing to the urgent action of General Nicholson, the commander of the Punjaub force, he ordered the assault on September 14. The northern wall was stormed, but Nicholson fell mortally wounded; and six more days' fighting was necessary before the King's Palace was stormed, and the British flag again flew over Delhi.

Massacre of the Women and Children at Cawnpore by Nana Sahib. Havelock's Relief of the Residency at Lucknow,

September.—Havelock had started from Allahabad in the early days of July, with hardly two thousand men, and after two victories reached Cawnpore. But instead of the women and children they hoped to rescue, the British soldiers found only a blood-stained room and a well choked with bodies. The horrible massacre had been ordered by Nana Sahib two days before, in despair of holding Cawnpore.

Burning with vengeance, the little force pushed on for Lucknow, and more victories were won. But the losses from battle and cholera were so great that in the end Havelock fell back to Cawnpore to wait for reinforcements, and it was not till the middle of September that he was strong enough to advance again. By that time General Outram, who had commanded in the Persian War, had arrived to take up the command in Oude. But he was a friend of Havelock, and chivalrously left him in command till Lucknow was relieved. The rebels were beaten outside Lucknow. After fierce fighting through the suburbs, the Residency was reached; and such was the joy at finding the children safe, that the soldiers caught them up in their arms and kissed them.

General Outram now took command. He found that he was not strong enough to withdraw the sick and the women and children, so he decided to remain. Thus the garrison was reinforced rather than relieved; but it was now amply strong enough to hold its own, though provisions were scanty, rice and gun bullocks being the chief food.

Second Relief of the Residency by Sir Colin Campbell, November.—Seven weeks later, after the original garrison had stood a siege of four and a half months, the Residency of Lucknow was finally relieved by Sir Colin Campbell, who had come out from home as the new commander-in-chief. He was a veteran of over sixty years of age, who had fought throughout the Peninsular War, and afterwards had distinguished himself in the Second Sikh War

Relief of the Residency at Lucknow.
Meeting of Sir Colin Campbell (on the right) with Sir James Outram (in the centre) and Sir Henry Havelock (on the left).

and the Crimea. It was not till the beginning of November that he was at Cawnpore, ready for the advance, at the head of 4500 men, including a force from Delhi.

As he was fighting his way through the suburbs, Outram and Havelock were fighting their way to meet him. On the evening of November 17, the three generals met three-quarters of a mile from the defences, under fire of the enemy's guns, and the siege was ended. Two future commanders-in-chief of the British army distinguished themselves on this day, Lieutenant Roberts of the artillery, and Major Wolseley of the infantry. Wolseley led the party that stormed the building where the generals met, and Roberts, by Sir Colin's orders, hoisted a flag on the top under a heavy fire, as a signal to Outram.

The first thing to do was to withdraw the sick, women and children. This was done a few days later, while the attention of the rebels was occupied by a pretended attack on their position. Then the Residency was abandoned, and the army retired to Cawnpore. But Havelock never left Lucknow. He was stricken with illness, and died a week after the relief. He was buried in the camp outside the city as the army was leaving. At Cawnpore Sir Colin routed a large rebel force under Nana Sahib, who escaped in spite of desperate attempts to capture him.

Capture of Lucknow, March 1858. Stamping out the Mutiny. Abolition of the Company.—The danger from the Mutiny was now over. Reinforcements were pouring into India; and in March 1858 Sir Colin Campbell, at the head of 30,000 men, attacked and took Lucknow, and routed the rebel army, 150,000 strong. The Mutiny was now broken, but there was much fighting for another year, with many gallant deeds, till all resistance was stamped out and peace restored. Nana Sahib held out to the last in Oude; what his end was has never been discovered.

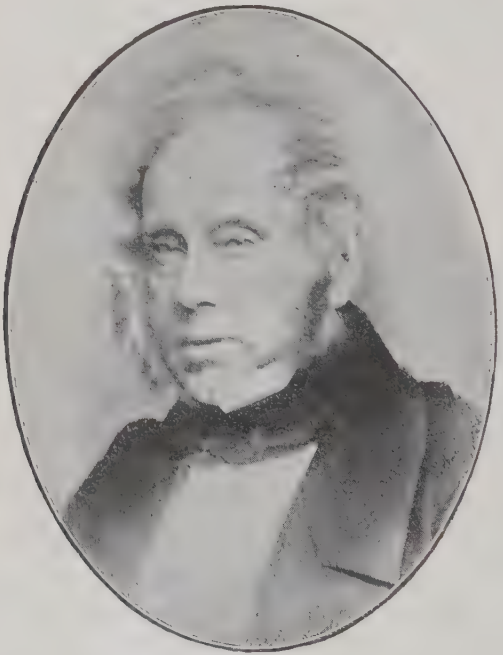
The first result of the Mutiny was that the East India Company was abolished by Parliament; and on Nov-

ember 1, 1858, the Queen was proclaimed sovereign of India. The number of the native army was reduced to 120,000, and that of the British increased to 60,000. More care has since been taken in enrolling natives, and there has been no further discontent. The scene of the horrible massacre of Cawnpore was made into a beautiful garden, with a memorial chapel on the site of the well.

Defeat of Lord Palmerston on the "Conspiracy to Murder" Bill. Lord Derby's Second Ministry, 1858-1859.—It was not Lord Palmerston but Lord Derby who passed the India Bill, for the Ministry had been most unexpectedly defeated. An Italian conspirator had tried to kill the Emperor Napoleon by throwing an explosive bomb at him when he was driving to the opera. As the crime had been plotted in London, the French Government wrote very strongly to ours; and Lord Palmerston brought in a "Conspiracy to Murder" Bill to make the law against assassination plots more severe. Unfortunately the French army became excited, and demanded war against "the land that sheltered such assassins." This irritated the British, and many Liberals, including Lord John Russell, who at this time was on bad terms with Lord Palmerston, joined the Conservatives and defeated the Bill. Thus Lord Palmerston, the great national champion, was driven from office for being thought too weak towards France. However, the next year, 1859, Lord Palmerston and Lord John Russell joined forces and beat the Conservatives at a General Election. At first there was a difficulty about the Liberal Ministry, for neither Lord Palmerston nor Lord John Russell, having both been Prime Minister, would serve under the other. But in the end Lord John gave way, on condition that he was made Foreign Secretary, the most important post after that of Prime Minister; and so Lord Palmerston became Prime Minister a second time.

Lord Palmerston's Second Ministry, 1859-1865. Foreign Affairs. Suspicion of France. Italy and Garibaldi.—For the first few years the British were still suspicious of the

designs of the Emperor Napoleon; and the result of the threats of the French colonels was the starting of the Rifle Volunteers (now called Territorials), for the French army was far larger than ours. But the Emperor turned his attention to Italy, and in 1859, in alliance with the Sardinians, attacked the Austrians to drive them out of



Lord Palmerston.

North Italy. After winning two great victories, he made a peace by which Austria gave up Lombardy only and kept Venice, while he made the King of Sardinia give France Nice and Savoy as the price of his aid. This made the British more suspicious of him than ever. He was now building the first ironclad warship, so that he seemed to be

trying to make his navy more powerful than ours; thereupon Lord Palmerston began building ironclads, and also spent large sums on fortifying Portsmouth, Plymouth and Chatham, our naval dockyards.

Meanwhile the Italians were acting for themselves. Tuscany and other small states drove out their rulers, who had been supported by Austria, and joined the kingdom of Sardinia. Then in 1860 the famous soldier and revolutionary patriot, Garibaldi, with a small force of volunteers, aided in the end by Sardinian troops, drove out the King of Naples, who ruled over Sicily and South Italy, and proclaimed the King of Sardinia, Victor Emmanuel, King of Italy. The French Emperor disapproved of Garibaldi's expedition, and would have stopped it, but the British were on his side. And a few years later Garibaldi paid a visit to England, and had an enthusiastic welcome from the people of London.

The American Civil War, 1861-1865. The Cotton Famine. Seizure of the Envoys. The "Alabama." Death of the Prince Consort, 1861.—In 1861 a terrible civil war broke out in the United States. The southern states broke away from the Union because the northern states wanted to abolish slavery, which existed chiefly in the plantations of the south. The northerners or Federals beat the southerners or Confederates in the end by superior numbers, but at first the Confederates, who had better generals, won many victories. One result of the war was to cause great distress in Lancashire. The cotton used in the mills there comes from the southern plantations, and, as none could come owing to the war, the mills were stopped and the hands were thrown out of employment. This cotton famine caused great distress, and the people were only saved from starvation by public subscriptions.

The war also caused us trouble with the Federals; indeed, at the beginning, Britain very nearly joined in against them, for a Federal warship seized two Confederate envoys who were coming to Europe on a British

mail-steamer. This it had no right to do, for a ship is regarded as the territory of the country to which it belongs. There was therefore a great outcry in Britain, where the upper classes were mostly on the Confederate side, though the working classes, in spite of the cotton famine, were for the Federals. The Federals at first refused to surrender the envoys; but, when the Ministry prepared for war, they gave way.

In a second difficulty the British were in the wrong. As the American navy was in the hands of the Federals, the Confederates had some fast steamers built in British dockyards to prey on the commerce of the North. The Ministry ought to have stopped this, for the Confederates were really rebels, and it was well known what the steamers were for, but they were not quick enough. Five steamers got away; and one especially, the *Alabama*, ruined the commerce of the Federals by the number of merchant ships she sank, till she was herself sunk by a Federal cruiser after a fight in the English Channel. It was a long time before the victorious Federals forgot the attitude of the British nation during the war; and, as you will read, we had afterwards to pay for the damage done by the *Alabama*.

At the end of 1861, the Prince Consort died from an illness caused by the bad drainage of Windsor Castle. One of his last acts was to help the Queen in softening down the despatch about the seizure of the envoys, so as to make it easier for the Federals to give way. The nation, which had learnt to appreciate his great qualities, deeply deplored his early death. The sorrow-stricken Queen lived for many years in complete retirement.

Home Politics. Death of Lord Palmerston, 1865.—In home politics there was a lull. The working classes wanted a new Reform Bill to give them a vote; and Lord John Russell brought one in. But Lord Palmerston gave him no help, and he had to drop it; and soon afterwards Lord John Russell went to the House of Lords as Earl Russell.

Lord Palmerston wanted no changes; and he was so popular in the country, which had forgiven him his Conspiracy to Murder Bill, that he could have his own way. The Radicals and Reforming Liberals, who now looked to Gladstone as their leader, felt that as long as he held the reins there was nothing to be done. But in 1865, after a General Election had given him again a majority, he died at the age of eighty-one.

Lord Russell succeeded as Prime Minister, with Gladstone as leader of the Commons. A new period was beginning in English history, in which the power was to go from the middle classes, who had held it since the First Reform Bill, to the working classes; 'Democracy,' which means the rule of the people, was approaching. Changes, too, were coming in Europe. In fact, new questions were arising at home and abroad which have not yet been settled.

SUMMARY.

Origin of the Crimean War; how Lord Aberdeen "drifted into war" with Russia—The Allies land in the Crimea—Battle of the Alma—Siege of Sebastopol and unsuccessful bombardment—Battles of Balaklava and Inkerman—The Crimean winter; sufferings of the troops—Fall of Lord Aberdeen; Lord Palmerston Prime Minister—Failure of the first assault—Capture of Sebastopol and Peace.

India; causes of the Mutiny; the greased cartridges—The outbreak at Meerut; and seizure of Delhi—Other outbreaks; the massacre at Cawnpore and defence of Lucknow—Siege and capture of Delhi—The two reliefs and capture of Lucknow from the mutineers—End of the Mutiny and of the East India Company.

Position of Lord Palmerston; his defeat and return to power—Suspicion of France; the Volunteers—Italy; the French war against Austria; Garibaldi and Italian unity—The American Civil War; the Cotton Famine; seizure of the envoys and the *Alabama*.

DATES.

1854. The Crimean War.

1857. The Indian Mutiny.

CHAPTER LXIII

Victoria, 1837-1901

(III)

Democracy

Gladstone and Disraeli. Earl Russell's Ministry, 1865-1866, defeated in their Reform Bill.—The champion of the coming democracy was Gladstone, a man of marvellous powers of mind, high character, great earnestness, very clever at finance, and an eloquent speaker. He had originally been a strong Tory; then he had been a warm admirer of Sir Robert Peel and free trade, and finally had become an enthusiastic champion of liberty. Compared with him, Disraeli seemed but a clever, unprincipled adventurer; but time was to show that he, too, had his principles. These two men, so different, now faced each other in the House of Commons as real leaders of their parties, for both Lord Russell and Lord Derby were old men. And for the next fifteen years there was a fierce duel between them, in which victory went now to one and now to the other. Disraeli won the first success, for, when the Reform Bill which Lord Russell had wanted so long was introduced by Gladstone in 1866, he was able to defeat it with the aid of some Liberals who still held Lord Palmerston's opinions. So for a third time, owing to the divisions of the Liberals, Lord Derby became Prime Minister without a majority.

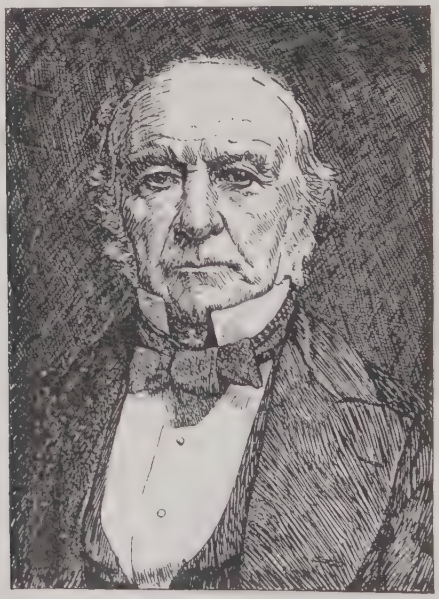
Ministry of Lord Derby and then Disraeli, 1866-1869. The Second Reform Bill, 1867.—But Disraeli soon found that

there was now such a demand for a Reform Bill among the working classes, that in 1867 he introduced one himself, and, as he afterwards said, "educated" his party to accept it. He could not, however, prevent Gladstone altering the Bill to make it more democratic. But in the end it passed both the Commons and the Lords, though the Prime Minister himself called it a "leap in the dark." This "Second Reform Bill" gave the vote to all householders in towns, and made the qualification in the counties lower; it also gave the vote to lodgers, whose lodging was of a certain value; thus the working classes now began to get power. It also took one member away from fifty small towns, to increase the members of large ones.

At the beginning of 1868 Lord Derby retired, and Disraeli, the "Jew adventurer," became Prime Minister. But at a General Election at the end of the year the new voters gave the victory to Gladstone, who had rallied the Liberal party after the Reform question had been got out of the way.

Gladstone's Ministry, 1869-1874. The Irish Church and Land Trouble.—There had recently been a revolutionary conspiracy by Irishmen called Fenians, mainly from the United States. It had been easily suppressed; but Gladstone made it his chief policy to remove the discontent in Ireland. There were two causes of this discontent besides the Union—religion and land. Though the Roman Catholics were three-quarters of the population, the Protestant Church, being still part of the Church of England, was the "established church" of the country, and the land system was very bad. Agriculture, as you have read, is the chief industry in Ireland. The farms are much smaller than in England, and sometimes the land is very poor. Moreover, the farmers regard their holdings as their own. They do all improvements which in England are done by the landlord; and the holdings remain in the same family for generations. All the landlord does is to receive the rent. If a landlord

wanted to evict a tenant who could not pay his rent, or for any other reason, the tenant generally resisted; the neighbours came to his assistance, and police and soldiers had to be used. Sometimes evictions were avenged by the murder of a landlord or agent. In fact, there was what was called a "Land War" in Ireland.



William Ewart Gladstone.

Gladstone first of all passed an Act to "disestablish" the Protestant Church in Ireland, by separating it from the Church of England, and take away from it much of its property. And the next year he passed a Land Act, making the farmers more secure in their holdings. But, unfortunately, the Irish Church Act came too late to appease the Irish; and the Land Act did not go far enough, though it pleased the Protestant farmers of the

North. The Irish now began to demand "Home Rule," not complete repeal of the Union, but an Irish Parliament subject to the British one. This was rejected by Liberals as well as by Conservatives, as it would put the Protestants under the power of the Roman Catholics, the very danger which led Pitt to pass the Union. But the Home Rule agitation has gone on ever since.

Gladstone also passed many other measures for England and Scotland, among them an Education Act, making it compulsory for every child to go to school, and setting up schools where they were wanted; a Ballot Act, making voting at elections secret, one of the points in the People's Charter; and an Act controlling public-houses and making them close earlier at night, in order to check drunkenness.

The Rise of Prussia. Bismarck's Policy of "Blood and Iron." Victory over Austria. 1866.—Though Gladstone's measures were on the whole very good, his reforming zeal interfered with so many interests, that the nation began to grow tired of it. But it was his foreign policy that damaged his Ministry most. He was still an ardent champion of the peace policy; but in Europe there was now more than ever a reign of force. The King of Prussia's minister at this time was Count (afterwards Prince) Bismarck, whose one aim was to make Prussia the head of Germany; and the only way he saw to accomplish this was by war, or, as he called it, a policy of "blood and iron." Bismarck had little fear of defeat, owing to the excellence of the Prussian army system already mentioned; and in 1866, just at the time when Earl Russell's Ministry was defeated, he forced a quarrel on Austria. The southern German states and Hanover sided with Austria; but Italy joined Prussia in order to gain Venice. The war lasted only six weeks, and the Austrians, though they beat the Italians by land and sea, were decisively beaten by the Prussians. The Italians, in spite of their defeats, obtained Venice; otherwise all that Bismarck demanded

of the Emperor of Austria was that he should give up all his authority in Germany outside his own dominions. Prussia now became head of a confederation of the northern German states and annexed Hanover.

It was fortunate for Britain that Hanover had been separated from the Crown, otherwise we should have been drawn into the war. But the Queen was deeply hurt at the loss of his crown by her cousin, the King of Hanover. Altogether the war was distressing to her, as she had several relatives, including a son-in-law, on the Austrian side; while the Crown Prince of Prussia, who had married her eldest daughter, the Princess Royal, commanded a Prussian army.

Defeat of France by Germany. Fall of the Emperor Napoleon III.; France again a Republic: the King of Prussia becomes German Emperor. 1870-1871.—The reason why Bismarck was so moderate in making peace with Austria, was that the next part of his plan was a war against France, to unite all Germany under Prussia; and he did not want Austria to join France. France had been much excited by the unexpected victory of Prussia; and four years later, in 1870, during Gladstone's Ministry, Bismarck cleverly used a trivial dispute to force the Emperor Napoleon into declaring war. To the Emperor's disappointment Austria remained neutral, and the southern Germans, remembering their conquest by the great Napoleon, joined Prussia. Outnumbered and outgeneralled, the French met with a series of defeats; and at last, on September 2, the Emperor was forced to surrender with 80,000 men at Sedan. The cry "we are betrayed" was raised at Paris; a republic was set up, and the "Second Empire" in France came to an end.

The Republic raised fresh armies; but the raw levies could not fight the well-trained Germans, and Paris was besieged. During the siege the German sovereigns assembled at Louis XIV.'s palace of Versailles, the German headquarters, in January 1871, and made King William of

Prussia German Emperor. In March Paris surrendered, and peace was made. France had to pay £240,000,000, and give up most of Alsace and Lorraine, which had once been German.

The fallen French Emperor joined the Empress, who had fled to England, where he died a few years later. The Queen, who had never trusted him as a ruler, sympathised with him in his fall, and always remained a close friend of the Empress.

Russia denounces the Black Sea Treaty. Reform of the British Army.—The war had two immediate results in Europe. The fall of the French Empire left the Pope, who still ruled the country round Rome, without a protector; whereupon the Italians took Rome, and so at last completed the union of Italy under its old capital. The Pope was allowed to live in independence in his palace and grounds of the Vatican; but he and his successors have always refused to recognise the right of the Kings of Italy to Rome, and held no communication with them.

The British were pleased at the occupation of Rome; but they were very angry when the Tsar also took advantage of the defeat of France, and announced that he would be no more bound by the treaty made at the end of the Crimean War, forbidding Russia to have warships in the Black Sea. Britain could not go to war with Russia alone. All the Ministry could do was to insist on a conference meeting, which altered the treaty as Russia wished.

However, it was felt that something must be done to increase the numbers of the army. Compulsory service, as in Prussia, was out of the question; but a system of short service was introduced, by which the great majority of recruits joined the army for only six years, after which they were enrolled for another six years on a reserve, which was only to be called out for war.

The "Alabama" Arbitration. Irritation in Britain against the Peace Policy. Defeat of Gladstone's Government, 1874.—The insignificant part played by Britain during the

European wars, and her weakness against Russia, caused a great feeling of humiliation, especially in the upper classes. And another humiliation quickly followed. The United States had for some time been demanding compensation for the losses inflicted on her trade by the *Alabama*. It was not a case for war; but the American demands were most excessive. So Gladstone proposed a new way of settling the dispute—by "arbitration" before a European tribunal. The United States agreed, and the arbitrators decided that Britain should pay £3,000,000.

Arbitration is a good way of settling small difficulties; but this one came at an unfortunate time. People began to say that Britain had become so rich and prosperous that she thought only of money-making: she had lost her spirit, and no longer played a great part in the world as in the Great War and Palmerston's early days, and the blame was laid on Gladstone and his "peace-at-any-price" policy, as it was called. Disraeli took advantage of this feeling, and stood forward as the champion of the national honour. Britain, he said, was the head of a great Empire, and must act up to her position.

At the beginning of 1874 Gladstone was badly beaten at a General Election, and Disraeli returned to office with the first Conservative majority there had been since Sir Robert Peel resigned in 1846.

Disraeli's Second Ministry, 1874-1880. Trouble in Turkey. The Bulgarian Atrocities.—Disraeli's Ministry was naturally more prominent in foreign affairs than home legislation. He showed his Imperial views by sending the Prince of Wales on a visit to India in 1875, and by passing a Bill giving the Queen the title of Empress of India. Monarchy is the only form of government that Asiatic peoples understand, and the first visit of a prince of the royal family, and the proclamation of the Empress, which took place with great pomp at Delhi on New Year's Day, 1877, undoubtedly increased the loyalty of the rulers and people of India.

In Europe Disraeli soon had a chance of showing his

policy, for the Eastern Question came up again for the third time in the century. In 1875 there was a rising of the Christians in the western provinces of Turkey, stirred up by Russia. The Sultan made no determined effort to crush the rebellion; and the next year the little state of Montenegro, which had preserved its independence among its barren mountains, and Serbia, which was half independent, declared war, aided by Russian volunteers and a Russian general. Another province, Bulgaria, on the southern bank of the Danube, also tried to rise, but was crushed, and horrible atrocities were inflicted on the inhabitants by savage Turkish irregulars. By the autumn the Serbians were defeated, but the Tsar saved them from an invasion by a threat of war. Meantime the European Powers had been attempting to make the Sultan grant reforms; the British Ministry, however, refused to agree to force being used, owing to our old suspicion of Russia, so nothing was done.

Then came the news of the "Bulgarian Atrocities," as they were called. Gladstone, who had retired from the leadership of the Liberals in disgust at his defeat, came forward again and attacked the Turks with all his fiery energy. He proclaimed that, for the honour of Britain, we ought to join Russia in driving the Turkish Government "bag and baggage" out of Europe. Disraeli declared the reports exaggerated, and said the Ministry must support "British interests." People were sharply divided on the question, but some Liberals would not go as far as Gladstone, including their new leader, the Marquis of Hartington (afterwards Duke of Devonshire), a man of moderate views but of great influence.

War between Russia and Turkey. Excitement against Russia in Britain. Treaty of Berlin, 1877-1878.—Disraeli, who had now gone to the House of Lords as Lord Beaconsfield, still tried to settle matters by a European Conference; but in the spring of 1877 the Tsar declared war, and was joined by Roumania, the half-independent province

north of the Danube. The Turks fought bravely and inflicted some severe defeats on the Russians; but they were at last overwhelmed, and by the beginning of 1878 a Russian army was advancing on Constantinople. The cry of "Constantinople in danger" caused as much excitement as the Bulgarian Atrocities. Lord Beaconsfield prepared for war. He called out the Reserve, obtained a grant of money from Parliament, brought a force of Indian troops to Malta, and finally sent the fleet up to Constantinople. The majority of the country was ready for war; there was a popular song of the day sung in London music-halls, beginning

"We don't want to fight, but by Jingo if we do,
We've got the ships, we've got the men, we've got the money too,"

and ending

"The Russians shall not have Constantinople."

From this song Liberals called the war party "Jingoes."

However, the Tsar thought it wiser to make peace, for Russia was exhausted by the war. But the British Ministry objected to the treaty as being too favourable to Russia, and the Tsar consented to a Conference at Berlin. Lord Beaconsfield went there himself, with Lord Salisbury, the Foreign Secretary. Bismarck did his best to arrange matters, and the Treaty of Berlin was agreed to.

Serbia and Roumania were made quite independent; more territory was given to Serbia, Montenegro and Greece; Bulgaria was made a half-independent province under a German prince, but it was not allowed to be as large as in the first treaty; and the provinces that originally revolted were placed under the administration of Austria. Britain was given the island of Cyprus as a military post in the eastern Mediterranean, and Lord Beaconsfield returned in a blaze of glory, having brought back, as he said, "Peace with Honour."

This was the last time the Eastern Question brought Britain within danger of war with Russia. The result of

the war was that most of the Christians in European Turkey had been freed; but, as time went on, Russia found herself as far as ever from Constantinople. Roumania, Serbia, and especially Bulgaria became suspicious of their powerful protector, the Tsar, fearing that he might want

Photo by Hughes and Mullins, Ryde.]

Lord Beaconsfield.

A photograph taken by command of the Queen after his return from Berlin.

to annex them, and after a time began to look to their own efforts to drive the Turks out of Europe; while Austria with its new provinces became a rival to Russia in Turkey. Russia too had trouble with the Revolu-

tionaries at home, who three years later killed the Tsar with a bomb. So she gradually dropped her designs on Turkey, and devoted herself to advancing her Asiatic Empire, of which we shall hear later.

Second Afghan War, 1878-1880. Murder of the British Envoy at Kabul, 1879.—Immediately after the war Russia had her revenge on us by causing us a troublesome war in Afghanistan. When there seemed a chance of

The Peiwar Kotal. The pass stormed by General Roberts.

war between Russia and Britain, the Russian general in Central Asia sent an envoy to the Ameer, a son of Dost Mahomed; and the Ameer, being on bad terms with the Indian Government, made a secret alliance with Russia. The Viceroy of India thereupon said he must also receive a British officer as envoy. This he refused to do, and at the end of 1878 Afghanistan was invaded by three armies.

As in the First Afghan War, all went well at first. The northern army captured the Khyber Pass on the road to Kabul, the southern one occupied Kandahar with little resistance, while in the centre General Roberts made his name by the skill with which he stormed a pass strongly held by the Afghans.

As the Treaty of Berlin had been signed, Russia threw over the deluded Ameer, who fled from Kabul and died soon afterwards. His son accepted our terms; and in July 1879 a British officer, with an escort of seventy-five Indian soldiers, took up his residence at Kabul. The Ameer guaranteed his safety, but in September the Residency was attacked, and the envoy and all his men were slain, fighting desperately to the last.

General Roberts's Victories at Kabul and Kandahar, 1879-1880. The New Ameer.—There was now no faint-heartedness in the British Councils, as in the First Afghan War. General Roberts's force was nearest to Kabul. He was reinforced and ordered to advance at once, while other troops were hurried to the front. After hard fighting against very superior numbers, General Roberts occupied Kabul. The new Ameer abdicated, and was sent a prisoner to India, as undoubtedly guilty of treachery. In December a huge force of Afghans, 100,000 strong, gathered round Kabul, and General Roberts was forced, after some fighting, to retire into his fortified camp. The Afghans tried to storm the camp, but they were beaten with such heavy loss that they went off to their homes; and in the spring of 1880 the general at Kandahar reached Kabul, after winning a victory on the way.

The question now was, what was to be done with Afghanistan. Fortunately at this time another descendant of Dost Mahomed, named Abdurrahman, appeared, who had been a rival of the late Ameer, and had been living in exile in Russian territory. He agreed to our terms, for we did not any longer insist on a British envoy at Kabul, and was accepted by us as Ameer. All seemed going

well, when suddenly, in the summer, news came that Kandahar was in danger; another son of the old Ameer had appeared from Herat and routed a division of the garrison, owing to bad generalship and the unsteadiness of a Sepoy regiment. Thereupon General Roberts was sent from Kabul with a picked force. He marched over three hundred miles in twenty-three days, and ended the war by the crowning victory of Kandahar, for which he was rewarded with a peerage.

The new Ameer, who was a strong ruler, and kept the turbulent Afghans in order, remained loyal to us for his whole reign; indeed, not long afterwards we had to take up his cause against Russia.

Annexation of the Transvaal, 1877. Zulu War, 1878-1879. Isandhlwana (map, page 1074).—Besides the Afghan trouble there was also at the same time trouble in South Africa. The Zulu army, destroyed when the Boers overthrew Dingaan, had been again organised; but their king, Cetewayo (Ketchwayo), was friendly to the British from hatred of the Boers. The Transvaal Boers themselves were disunited. They would not submit even to their own President, who had no power and no money, and they had been unsuccessful in a native war. A defeat of the Boers by natives would be dangerous to the British; and South Africa had become more important owing to the discovery of rich diamond mines in 1867 in the north of Cape Colony. So in 1877 it was decided to make the Transvaal secure by annexing it. This was done without any opposition, though the Boers did not like it. But it made the Zulus suspicious, and Cetewayo was told that he must disband his army. As he naturally refused, Zululand was invaded on three sides at the end of 1878.

The war began with a terrible disaster. In January 1879, the camp of the main army at Isandhlwana, which was guarded by one regiment, was assailed by several thousands of Zulus. The camp had not been "laagered" in the Boer fashion, and the regiment faced the Zulu

British troops crossing the river Tugela to Zululand.

rush in line; and the Zulus, though suffering terribly from the fire of the breech-loading rifles, swept round its flanks and slew every man with their spears. Then the victorious Zulus made for Rorke's Drift, the nearest ford over the river which was the boundary of Natal. It was held by a post of eighty men under two young lieutenants, guarding a hospital. They made a hasty barricade of biscuit boxes, and fighting behind it all night, beat off the Zulu attack and saved Natal from the horrors of a savage invasion.

The mistake of Isandhlwana was not repeated, and the Zulus won no more victories; but the invasion of Zululand was stopped till large reinforcements came out. During this interval of waiting an unfortunate incident occurred. The Prince Imperial (the only son of the late Emperor Napoleon), who had received a military education at Woolwich, came out as a volunteer. One day he rode out with a small reconnoitring patrol. While resting, the patrol was surprised by some Zulus. The others mounted and rode off, but the Prince, whose horse was restive, failed to mount, and was killed by the Zulus.

At last, in the summer, the decisive battle was fought at Ulundi, Cetewayo's royal "kraal." The British infantry, formed in a large square, crushed the charge of the Zulus by their rifle fire, and the cavalry completed their overthrow. The great Zulu army was no more; and a month later Cetewayo was caught in hiding and made prisoner. Zululand was divided up among a number of chiefs. Later on Cetewayo was again set over a part, but was soon killed in a rising; and finally, after some more trouble, Zululand was annexed.

Lord Beaconsfield's Defeat in 1880. His Death.—Whether the Afghan War was a mistake or not, the Zulu War was certainly necessary. It was impossible for Natal to make peaceful progress with a great army of drilled savages on the border. But the Liberals strongly denounced both wars; and Gladstone was continually addressing public meetings and fiercely assailing Lord Beacons-

field's " Jingo " policy. The majority of the upper classes were for Lord Beaconsfield, but the majority of the middle classes and lower classes, and the Dissenters, were for Gladstone; and a General Election in 1880 resulted in a decisive Liberal victory. The Queen wished to make Lord Hartington Prime Minister; but he refused, as the Liberals were all looking to Gladstone, who had really won the victory, and Gladstone again became Prime Minister.

Gladstone's Second Ministry, 1880-1885. The Irish Land War.—No modern Ministry has had such a troublous career, or so humiliated Britain, as this second one of Gladstone's during its life of five years; and it proved the end of the Gladstonian Peace Policy. But Lord Beaconsfield did not live to see the triumph of his ideas, for he died a year after his defeat, at the age of seventy-six.

From the very beginning there was the old Irish trouble. A very wet summer in 1879 had made it hard for the poorer farmers to pay their rent, and there had been many evictions. The land war broke out worse than ever, and a " Land League," to get rid of the landlords altogether, was founded by a Fenian. It was largely supported by the Fenian exiles in the United States, who were fiercer than ever in their resolve to drive British rule out of Ireland by force. Some of them employed murder and bombs, and during these years the London police had to be very watchful and guard the Prime Minister and Irish Secretary. A few bombs were exploded in London, but did little harm. In Ireland the Land League also employed force to establish its power; gangs of men called " moonlighters " terrorised the country-side at night, visiting farmers who would not join the League, threatening and sometimes murdering them.

The leader of the Home Rule party, or " Nationalists," as they were called, was now a very clever man called Parnell. His object was to use the land war, and the support of the American Fenians, to force Parliament to grant Home Rule. He did not himself approve of criminal

methods, but he had to be careful in his speeches not to offend his allies by denouncing them. He and his followers also made themselves as troublesome as possible in the House of Commons, by what is called "obstruction," that is, delaying business by long speeches and other means. This caused several wild scenes; but the only result was that the House was finally forced to make fresh rules, by which it could vote that a debate should end. This is called the "Closure."

Gladstone's Measures. The Coercion Act and Land Act, 1881.—Such was the state of things Gladstone had to face. To put down the land agitation he passed a law that the Lord-Lieutenant might imprison without trial any one on suspicion of stirring up disorder: such "suspects" were, of course, not treated like ordinary criminals. The Bill took twenty-four days, with more wild scenes, to pass. Then he passed a great Land Act, which set up a Commission to fix rents, and gave every farmer a right to his farm as long as he paid his rent. This did prove a healing measure, as the rents were nearly always reduced. But it took time before it could work; and the other Act did no good, as the imprisoned "suspects" simply became heroes to the people. At last, in the autumn of 1881, Parnell himself and some other leaders were imprisoned, and the Land League was suppressed. This did not improve matters, and, in the spring of 1882, Gladstone changed his policy, and released Parnell on a sort of understanding that he would discourage the outrages; whereupon the Lord-Lieutenant and Chief Secretary resigned.

The Invincibles. Murder of Lord Frederick Cavendish, 1882. The Third Reform Bill, 1884.—There was at this time at Dublin a secret band of assassins who called themselves Invincibles. They had failed in an attempt to waylay and murder the late Chief Secretary, but when his successor, Lord Frederick Cavendish, brother of Lord Hartington, arrived in Dublin, he was stabbed to death by them.

He himself was unknown to the assassins, but he was walking with an official whom they had planned to murder, and so shared his fate. This brutal deed caused the greatest horror in England, and Gladstone brought in a new Crimes Act, which gave the Irish Government stronger powers to discover and convict actual criminals. At this Parnell, who had declared his abhorrence of the murders, resumed his old tactics. The land war went on, and instead of the Land League, a National League was started which, with branches in every village, soon became powerful over all Ireland except Ulster. Early in 1883, owing to the Crimes Act, the Invincible conspiracy was unearthed. Several men were convicted for the murders, and five were hanged. The worst was now over, but the improvement in Ireland was very slow.

The next year, 1884, the Third Reform Bill was passed, which gave the vote to agricultural labourers, as the Bill of 1867 gave it to the artisans of towns. Nearly every man now has a vote, except tramps, beggars, and other ne'er-do-wells.

Foreign Affairs. Transvaal Rebellion, 1880-1881. Majuba Hill.—The difficulties Gladstone had in foreign affairs were connected with South Africa, Egypt and Central Asia. The Transvaal Boers expected Gladstone to give them their freedom, as he had denounced the annexation in his speeches. But as he did nothing for them, at the end of 1880 they rebelled, besieged the British garrisons in the Transvaal, and seized a mountain pass by which the road from Natal crossed the frontier. They were only a few thousand altogether, but there were not many British troops in Natal; and the general, attacking the Boers, was repulsed with heavy loss. The Boers, accustomed to shoot game from their youth, are far better shots than soldiers; and our men were conspicuous in their red uniforms.

Before the fighting took place, Gladstone decided to restore the Boers their independence. Unfortunately,

before the discussion of terms actually began, the British general, owing to a misunderstanding, continued the fighting. With 600 men he seized by night a hill called Majuba, overlooking the Boer camp; but the next morning the Boers, creeping from rock to rock, drove the British from the hill with heavy loss, and the general was killed. In spite of this, negotiations were started, and peace was made by which the Boers were given back their independence, under the "suzerainty" of the British Crown, which only meant that they might not make treaties with foreign countries without the consent of Britain.

Gladstone declared the peace was an act of magnanimity by a strong power to a weak one, and that to have continued fighting, to avenge Majuba and drive the Boers out of Natal, would have been an act of "bloodguiltiness." But the Boers felt no gratitude; they considered they had won their freedom by their prowess and the help of God. Majuba Hill remained as great a triumph to them as it was a bitter humiliation to the British.

Egypt. French and British Interference. Arabi's Rebellion and Defeat by the British, 1882.—Next came the Egyptian difficulty. The ruler or "Khedive" of Egypt is a vassal of the Sultan; but both France and Britain were much interested in the country for two reasons. The Khedive had borrowed large sums of money from both countries, which he had mostly squandered on himself. And the Suez Ship Canal, completed in 1869, had been built by a Frenchman and mainly with French money, but is most important to Britain, as it is the shortest route to India, Australia and the Far East. Moreover, in 1875, when the Khedive offered his shares for sale for £4,000,000, owing to want of money, Disraeli bought them for Britain before France knew anything about them. Soon afterwards, as the Khedive after all became bankrupt, France and Britain took over the control of the finances of Egypt, and finally obtained from the Sultan a decree deposing

the Khedive in favour of his son. The new Khedive was merely a puppet in the hands of France and Britain, and in 1882 the Egyptian army, under the War Minister, Arabi Pasha, rebelled against the foreign rule.

The French and British Mediterranean squadrons were sent to Alexandria, where many Europeans had been killed in a riot. France, however, decided not to interfere, and withdrew her fleet. So Britain had to act alone. The fleet bombarded Alexandria, and an army of 30,000 men was sent out under Sir Garnet Wolseley, who had made his reputation in a small war in West Africa. He landed in the Canal, and utterly routed the Egyptian army at Tel-el-Kebir, in what was the Land of Goshen of the Bible. The Egyptians were very poor soldiers, but General Wolseley, who was made a peer for his victory, showed great skill in his operations. All had gone well, and the British Government promised to withdraw the troops when tranquillity was restored.

The Mahdi. Rebellion in the Egyptian Soudan. Destruction of General Hicks's Army, 1883.—Unfortunately another difficulty appeared. The Khedive's dominions included, besides Egypt itself, a vast stretch of country almost as far as the Equator, which, except for the fertile valley of the Nile, is desert, inhabited mainly by Arab and negro tribes, and is known as the Egyptian Soudan. The capital, Khartoum, is nearly two thousand miles up the Nile. Just at this time there arose in the desert an Arab fanatic who declared himself a "Mahdi," that is, a successor of Mahomet, and gathered followers to throw off the Egyptian yoke.

By the summer of 1883 he had become so powerful that the Egyptian Ministry determined to crush him. Against the advice of the British Ministry, they sent a force of 10,000 men into the desert under an Indian officer, General Hicks, and the whole force was destroyed in a battle by the Arabs. The revolt now spread as far as the Red Sea, and the question was, what was to

An Arab charge.
One of the battles with the British on the Red Sea coast.

happen to the Egyptian garrisons, which, if left to their fate, would be massacred by the ruthless Arabs. There were two small garrisons near the Red Sea, and an Egyptian force was sent at the beginning of 1884 to rescue them, only to be slaughtered like sheep by the Arab tribesmen. Then at last a British force was landed, which beat the Arabs after two fierce fights, but was too late to save the garrisons; and we contented ourselves with holding the port of Suakim.

General Gordon sent to Khartoum, 1884.—It was easy for Britain to fight on the coast, but an expedition into the interior of the Soudan was a very different matter, and the Ministry adopted another plan. There was at the time in England an engineer officer, General Charles Gordon, a man of great ability and resolution, utterly fearless and deeply religious. He had had a strange life. After serving in the Crimea and the last Chinese War, he had, in command of a Chinese army, suppressed a rebellion, whence he was called "Chinese Gordon." Afterwards he had been Governor of the Soudan for the Khedive, and had put down the slave-trade of the Arabs. He was now about to go to the Congo in the service of the King of the Belgians, who was starting a colony there. It was thought that Gordon might by his influence arrange with the Arabs for the withdrawal of the garrisons, and he agreed to go. Gordon started in January 1884; but on his arrival at Khartoum he found that the Mahdi was more powerful than himself, and all he could do was to defend Khartoum against the Arabs. As time went on, it became plainer and plainer that help would have to be sent to Gordon, but Gladstone could not be convinced of the necessity.

The Relief Expedition. Fall of Khartoum and Death of Gordon, January 1885.—At last, late in the summer, the expedition was sanctioned, and Lord Wolseley was put in command. Boats were constructed to ascend the Nile, to be manned by Canadian boatmen, for

the navigation of the Nile is difficult owing to the rapids in places, known as the "Cataracts." By December Lord Wolseley was within three hundred miles of Khartoum. An advanced guard took a short cut by a desert march of two hundred miles, and after two fierce fights with the Arabs, reached Gordon's steamers, as arranged, in January 1885. Some of the troops were embarked, but on approaching Khartoum, the steamers were fired at, and the Mahdi's flag was seen flying. Khartoum had been stormed only two days before, and Gordon, it was afterwards learnt, had calmly met his death on the steps of his residence.

At home the news of the relief of Khartoum was being daily expected; great therefore was the grief and indignation of the Queen and the nation when the fatal truth was known. There was more fighting on the Red Sea coast, with the object of making a railway to the Nile to give an easier route to Khartoum; and New South Wales sent a force to aid the mother country, a notable fact in the history of the Empire. But in the end the Ministry gave up the idea of any advance, and the Egyptian frontier was drawn half way down the Nile from Khartoum. A new Egyptian army was formed under British officers as well as Egyptians, containing some regiments of Soudanese negroes, who are fine fighters and hate the Arabs. This army defeated two attempts of the Mahdists to force their way down the Nile, one in 1885 and another four years later.

The Soudan rebellion prevented Britain from withdrawing from Egypt. Ever since we have kept a small garrison there, and administered the country. The Khedive's Ministry governs, but the real ruler is the British "Financial Adviser." Under the able direction of these Financial Advisers, especially the first, Lord Cromer, much has been done for Egypt, and it has been steadily growing more prosperous. But for many years the French were angry at our occupation, and thwarted our measures as much as possible.

The Afghan Boundary Dispute with Russia, 1885. Defeat of Gladstone. Short Ministry of Lord Salisbury.—One reason why the Ministry retired from the Soudan was that there was a dispute with Russia about the frontier of Afghanistan. The Russians had been conquering the Turkoman tribes up to the Afghan border, and British and Russian officers were engaged in arranging a frontier line, when a dispute arose about a place which was held by an Afghan force, and a skirmish took place in which the Afghans were beaten. Gladstone began preparations for a war; but in the end he allowed Russia to keep the disputed place, which brought her outposts within fifty miles of Herat, the "Key of India." Russia on her part agreed not to interfere with Afghanistan in the future, and the Ameer was quite satisfied with this arrangement.

Not only was Gladstone discredited by his foreign policy, but the ministers were quarrelling among themselves; and, in spite of his majority, he was beaten in the Commons, and Lord Salisbury, Lord Beaconsfield's Foreign Secretary, became Conservative Prime Minister in June 1885. But in a General Election held in December under the third Reform Bill, the new county voters gave Gladstone a majority over the Conservatives, for foreign affairs did not count as much with them as gratitude to the Liberals for giving them the vote. Ireland, however, where Home Rule is the only question, elected eighty-five Nationalists out of one hundred and five members, and neither party could hold office without their support.

Gladstone converted to Home Rule. His Return to Office, and the Defeat of his Home Rule Bill, 1886.—This state of affairs converted Gladstone to Home Rule, for he had always disliked the necessity of repressive laws in Ireland, which are so opposite to Liberal principles. So when Parliament met in January 1886, the Nationalists helped him to turn out Lord Salisbury. He became Prime Minister a third time, and in due course brought in a Home Rule Bill, which was to be a "message of peace"

to Ireland. But the majority of the British thought it dangerous to hand over Ireland to the Nationalists; and the Protestants of Ulster declared that they would fight rather than be ruled by them. Ninety Liberals, led by Lord Hartington and Joseph Chamberlain, a Birmingham manufacturer, leader of the Radicals, turned against Gladstone, and Home Rule was defeated.

Lord Salisbury's Second Ministry, 1886-1892.—Gladstone appealed to the country, but Conservatives and Liberal Unionists (as those who objected to Home Rule called themselves) had a large majority over the Home Rule Liberals and Nationalists, and Lord Salisbury returned to office.

For many years Ireland was the chief subject of interest at home, and the course of the struggle may be now shortly described. The Conservatives passed a fresh Crimes Act, and Arthur Balfour, Lord Salisbury's nephew, who was made Chief Secretary, used it firmly and steadily to put down disorder, while in the House of Commons he defended his acts with great courage and ability, and by his cool imperturbability, parried the fierce attacks of the Nationalists. Slowly and steadily the condition of Ireland improved and actual crime diminished, though the National League remained powerful in the south and west. Another important measure was an Act setting up elective County and District Councils in England and Scotland to manage local affairs. London with its suburbs was also given a County Council, but the City was left under its old Corporation and Lord Mayor.

Gladstone's Last Ministry, 1892-1894. Home Rule defeated by the Lords.—In 1892 the Home Rulers gained a small majority at the General Election. Gladstone, Prime Minister a fourth time, at the age of eighty-three, brought in his second Home Rule Bill, which was passed in the Commons but defeated by the Lords. In 1894 Gladstone retired from politics owing to failing health, denouncing in his last speech the action of the House of Lords. From

this time the reform or abolition of the House of Lords, which had so often interfered with Liberal measures, became one of the objects of the party.

Gladstone died four years later, in 1898. It is difficult at the present time to try to give an impartial view of his policy, about which people still differ very widely; but it is sad to think of the old man retiring baffled in the great object of his latter years.

The long Unionist Ministry, 1895-1905.—The year after Gladstone's retirement, the Liberals were decisively beaten at a General Election. Lord Salisbury became Prime Minister the third time, and formed a "Unionist" Ministry with Lord Hartington, now Duke of Devonshire, Chamberlain, and other Liberal Unionists. This Ministry lasted over ten years, into the reign of Edward VII.; but towards the end Lord Salisbury resigned, and was succeeded by Balfour. It did much for the pacification of Ireland, especially by passing an Act in 1903 which enabled tenants to buy their farms by money lent from the British Treasury. But the Irish Nationalists were as strong as ever in Parliament, and still demanding Home Rule. Abroad, the greatest successes of the Unionists were to wipe away the disgraces of Khartoum and Majuba Hill. To understand this we must now return to foreign and colonial affairs.

SUMMARY.

Gladstone and Disraeli—Lord Russell's Ministry defeated on Reform Bill—Lord Derby's Ministry; Disraeli passes a Reform Bill and becomes Prime Minister—Gladstone's First Ministry; his Irish Church and Land Bills—Rise of Prussia; war between France and Germany; King of Prussia becomes German Emperor—Russia denounces Black Sea Treaty—The *Alabama* Arbitration—Gladstone's Peace Policy discredited; his defeat.

Second Ministry of Disraeli (Lord Beaconsfield)—The Eastern Question; war between Russia and Turkey; Treaty of Berlin—The Afghan and Zulu Wars.

Gladstone's Second Ministry—Home Rule and the Irish Land War —Coercion and the Land Act—Murder of Lord Frederick Cavendish—Third Reform Bill—Transvaal Rebellion; Majuba Hill—British interference in Egypt and occupation; rebellion in the Soudan—Gordon sent to Khartoum; the Nile Campaign and his death—The Afghan Boundary Question.

Lord Salisbury's short Ministry—Gladstone's conversion to Home Rule and return to office; his Bill defeated—Lord Salisbury's Second Ministry; fighting the National League in Ireland—Gladstone's last Ministry; his Second Home Rule Bill defeated in the Lords—Unionist Ministry under Lord Salisbury; improvement in Ireland.

DATES.

1867. Second Reform Bill.
1881. Majuba Hill.
1884. Third Reform Bill.
1885. Death of Gordon at Khartoum.
1886. Defeat of First Home Rule Bill.
1893. Defeat of Second Home Rule Bill.

CHAPTER LXIV

Victoria, 1837-1901

(IV)

Edward VII., 1901-1910

Imperialism

Germany's Colonial Ambition. Britain adopts an Imperial Policy.—The wars by which Bismarck raised Prussia to be the head of a new German Empire and the leading power in Europe, produced the greatest change in Europe since Waterloo. France, thirsting for revenge, reorganised a powerful army after the Prussian system. The other nations followed her example, and from that time Europe has been divided into two hostile camps, armed to the teeth. For Bismarck, to protect Germany against France, first made an alliance with Russia and Austria, and then, when Russia became unfriendly, took Italy into the alliance, while Russia joined France. These alliances were known as the Triple and Dual Alliances.

Britain joined neither alliance, though at first we were more friendly to Germany, for we had quarrels with France in other parts of the world as well as Egypt. But the Germans, having become the greatest nation in Europe, naturally wished to play a great part in the world outside, by acquiring a colonial Empire, like the British. This German activity began towards the end of Gladstone's

Photo by Hughes and Mullins, Ryde.]

Queen Victoria,
in the dress worn at her Jubilee, 1887.

second Ministry, and, with Majuba Hill and Khartoum, finally overthrew the "Peace Policy." It was plain that if Britain was to keep her high position, she must stand up for herself, by arms if necessary; and instead of the colonies leaving the mother country, the Empire must stand together against all rivals, and even extend its frontiers.

Most of the Liberal statesmen accepted this new Imperial policy; and thus Lord Beaconsfield's principles had at last triumphed, even if he had himself been too warlike. But there is still a party, chiefly Radicals and Dissenters, who in their zeal for peace and improvement at home, are too blind to the necessity of defence and of the unity of the Empire. The self-governing colonies themselves, though very jealous of any interference by the Home Parliament, are loyal to the Crown, and now began to feel the need of the protection of the mother country. Their only grievance was that they had no voice in Imperial matters. This led to the idea of a federation of the Empire; but as yet no workable plan has been proposed. However, when in 1887 Queen Victoria celebrated her first Jubilee by a service in Westminster Abbey, the premiers of the self-governing colonies were invited, and Lord Salisbury's Ministry held a Conference with them on Imperial affairs: and these Conferences are now held at regular intervals, which is a distinct step towards Federation. Chamberlain too, who became Colonial Secretary in 1895 in the Unionist Ministry, did much to strengthen the Imperial tie by his keen sympathy with colonial interests.

The Scramble for Africa.—It was Africa that was the chief object of colonial rivalry. The tropical interior of the "Dark Continent," as it was called, had been gradually opened up. Speke and Grant had discovered the source of the Nile in 1862, and more recently Dr. Livingstone had explored the Zambesi, and Henry Stanley the Congo. Besides the Cape and Natal, Britain had small

coast settlements in the north-west. France had rival settlements there as well as Algeria in the north, while Portugal had old colonies on both sides of South Africa, of which she made little use. For some time British traders and missionaries had been active beyond the borders of our possessions. German traders began to imitate them, and in 1884 the German Government hoisted their flag on the south-west coast, north of Cape Colony. Their object was to found a colony reaching to the borders of the Transvaal, hoping that the Boers would come under their protection from hatred of the British. Gladstone's Government was too late to stop the settlement on the coast, though there were many British traders there; but we cut it off from the Transvaal by annexing the country of the friendly Bechuanas.

At the same time the King of the Belgians (son of Victoria's uncle), who was interested in exploration, started an International African Company to found the Congo Free State, which has since become Belgian. The British were now thoroughly stirred into activity, to secure as far as possible the labours of their traders and missionaries from their rivals. A scramble for Africa began all round the coasts. In former days there would have been wars; in one case, as you will read, we did threaten France with war. But agreements were made on the give-and-take principle, the results of which are shown in the map on page 1069.

The most important were with Germany on the east coast near Zanzibar, and with France in North-west Africa on the Niger in 1898. There French and British officers, in command of native troops, marched about planting flags to claim districts. They often met, but were quite friendly, for they knew their governments would settle the disputes, while if once a shot was fired there would probably be a war.

South Africa. The Transvaal Gold-Mines. Cecil Rhodes founds Rhodesia.—It was in South Africa that the greatest

extension of our Empire came. There the discovery of diamonds in 1867 was followed in 1886 by the discovery of gold in the south of the Transvaal, which turned the Boer village of Johannesburg into the greatest city of South Africa. The gold-mines were entirely worked by foreigners, chiefly British, with native labourers, and, as you will read, had a great effect on the history of our African Empire. Our greatest modern Empire-builder was Cecil Rhodes, who went out to the Cape as a young man for his health. He had great ideas, and it was the fortune which he made in the diamond and gold-mines that enabled him to carry them out. His dream was a great South African State, stretching to the north of the river Zambesi and joining the other British colonies which had been founded on the east coast, with finally a "Cape to Cairo railway," when the Egyptian Soudan had been reconquered. He obtained rights to mine for gold from Lobengula, the chief of the Matabele, of whom you read in the account of the Great Trek, and, coming to London in 1889, obtained from Lord Salisbury a "Charter" to found a company to administer the territory, which was called Rhodesia after him. A few years later the Matabele rose against the Chartered Company, but were defeated.

Rhodes and President Krüger. The Oppression of the Outlanders in the Transvaal. The Jameson Raid, 1895.—All this time Rhodes had been very friendly with the Dutch at the Cape, who were in a majority in the Parliament; for he saw that his South African State must be Dutch as well as British, and in 1890 he became Prime Minister of the Cape Colony. But he had a bitter rival in Krüger, who had been President of the Transvaal ever since its Rebellion. Krüger, who had taken part in the Great Trek as a boy, hated the British, and wanted South Africa to be entirely Dutch. He was specially angry at the founding of Rhodesia, for the Transvaal was now entirely surrounded by British and Portuguese territory.

The gold-mines, too, were causing trouble in the

Transvaal, for though they brought great wealth to their state, the Boers would not allow the "Outlanders," as they called the British and foreigners, the vote, except on conditions that took many years to fulfil. This irritated the Outlanders, as the Boer Government was very back-

Photo by W. and D. Downey.

Cecil Rhodes.

ward and corrupt; and it caused much ill-feeling throughout South Africa between the Dutch and British, thus interfering with Rhodes's schemes.

Rhodes then made the mistake of his life. In 1895 he plotted to overthrow Krüger by a sudden attack, aided by the Outlanders of Johannesburg. His lieutenant in

Rhodesia, Dr. Jameson, collected five hundred mounted police on the Transvaal border in December, and, before Rhodes had made his final arrangements or the Outlanders were ready, took the matter into his own hands, and rode across the frontier for Johannesburg. Consequently, he was surrounded by a force of Boers and compelled to surrender, on New Year's Day 1896. The "Jameson Raid" ruined Rhodes's position. He at once resigned his Prime-Ministership, and henceforth devoted himself to Rhodesia, where he had to put down another rising of the Matabele. Krüger punished the chief plotters of Johannesburg with heavy fines, after first condemning them to death, and handed Dr. Jameson and his officers over to the British Government, which had them tried and imprisoned. Chamberlain had tried, too late, to stop the Raid, but the Boers believed that he was in the plot. They now began to increase their military preparations, and under the circumstances the British Government could do nothing.

The Reconquest of the Soudan, 1896-1898.—The British were greatly irritated at the Jameson Raid, which had given the Boers another triumph, and their irritation was increased by the German Emperor, who sent a telegram to Krüger congratulating him on his defeat of the plot. But in Egypt things began to look brighter. Lord Salisbury authorised General Kitchener, who commanded the Egyptian army, to advance up the Nile. The Egyptian troops under their British officers, assisted by gunboats, routed the Arab frontier force in two battles. Then the Nile railway, which had already reached the frontier, was pushed on into the newly-won district, for it was by means of the railway that the Soudan was to be reconquered. There was now no need of hurry: all was deliberately and carefully planned. The next year, with hardly any fighting, the railway was carried to a town on the Nile only two hundred miles from Khartoum. All was now ready for the final campaign. In the spring of 1898, reinforced by a British division sent up by rail, the Egyptian

army destroyed an Arab force sent against them. In September the last Arab army, fighting with frantic courage, was routed with terrible slaughter at the battle of Omdurman, opposite Khartoum, and the cruel Arab rule was over.

The Memorial Service to General Gordon.
General Kitchener is the figure in the centre.

The French on the Nile at Fashoda.—A service was held in Khartoum in memory of Gordon, and then General

Kitchener started off in a steamer for Fashoda, five hundred miles up the Nile, for he heard that the French flag was hoisted there. The fact was that the French Colonial party had been planning a French dominion across the centre of Africa; and one officer, Major Marchand, had started three years before from Senegal on the west coast with a small native force, and had just reached the Nile. A friendly interview took place between Major Marchand and General Kitchener, but he refused to haul down the French flag; thereupon General Kitchener hoisted the British and Egyptian flags close by, and the matter was left to the two governments. Lord Salisbury insisted on the withdrawal of Major Marchand, and the French Government gave way, for the nation did not think Fashoda worth a war; nor did her ally Russia, especially as the British fleet was very strong, and it was afraid that Germany might join in. General Kitchener was rewarded for his services with the title of Lord Kitchener of Khartoum.

The Soudan under British Rule.—The reconquered Soudan was not restored to the Egyptian Government, but is administered by the British under the British and Egyptian flags. It has been gradually recovering from the devastating effects of the Arab rule. The railway now links Khartoum with the civilised world; there are hotels there for tourists; a Gordon College has been founded for native boys; and in 1912 the Bishop of London consecrated a cathedral there.

You will see from the map that the Soudan territory reaches to British East Africa, but between East Africa and Rhodesia German territory touches the Congo Free State, and so bars the way against the Cape to Cairo Railway.

The Queen's Diamond Jubilee. The Advance of Canada.—In 1897, during the Soudan War, the Queen celebrated her "Diamond Jubilee," the sixtieth anniversary of her accession, which was made an occasion of a great display

Hoisting the Eruption flag at Fashoda. The French flag is [illegible]

of the armed forces of the Empire. In the procession from Buckingham Palace to St. Paul's, besides British troops there were representatives of the Indian army, with a cavalcade of Indian princes in their gorgeous costume, volunteers from Canada, Australia, New Zealand, South Africa, the West Indies and other small settlements, and many native troops, a strange sight in London—Hausas from West Africa, Malays from the Straits Settlements, Fijians with their strange fluffy hair, and Chinese from Hong-Kong—all come to do honour to the great Queen and Empress.

Great had been the progress of the self-governing colonies since the middle of the century ; but the progress of Canada had been the greatest of all. For Australia and New Zealand in the distant southern ocean were as yet secure from rivals ; while Canada had a powerful neighbour over the border in the wealthy and populous United States, and she felt that she would have to make special exertions to preserve her national existence. There was talk in the United States of annexing Canada in course of time—and there were British people who calmly anticipated that that would be her natural fate—and already she was feeling the influence of the United States in her trade.

The first step Canada took was to federate with the two colonies of Nova Scotia and New Brunswick. In 1867, after a Conference in London, Parliament passed an Act setting up the "Dominion of Canada," with a Federal Parliament, and also local parliaments for Ontario and Quebec, the two old provinces of Canada, Nova Scotia and New Brunswick. Soon afterwards British Columbia on the Pacific, little Prince Edward's Island off Nova Scotia, and Manitoba, a newly settled wheat-growing country west of Ontario, joined the Dominion. But Newfoundland has hitherto held aloof.

The second step was to establish "Protection" in trade, even against the mother country, in order to increase Canadian manufactures. This was also done by most of the Australian colonies and New Zealand. The third

was to open up the vast prairie land of the West by a railway to the Pacific, and to encourage immigrants by offering them farms on easy terms. It was some years before the money for this could be found; but in 1881 the Canadian Pacific Railway was begun, and in five years trains were running from St. John, the port of New Brunswick, over the Rocky Mountains to Vancouver, the port of British Columbia, a distance of nearly 3500 miles, nearly a thou-

By permission of the Canadian Pacific Railway Co.]

Canadian Pacific Railway.
Crossing the Rocky Mountains.

sand miles further than from St. John to London. This proved the turning-point in the history of Canada. The land is splendid for wheat, and is still being opened up by more railways. More and more emigrants from home, and even from the United States, are pouring in every year. Two new provinces have been formed, which with Mani-

By permission of the Canadian Emigration Agency

Reaping in the Western Provinces of Canada.

toba are becoming the "granary of the Empire." It is only the southern part of Canada that is habitable, for the north is cold and barren, and part is actually in the Arctic region. Even in the south the winter is very cold.

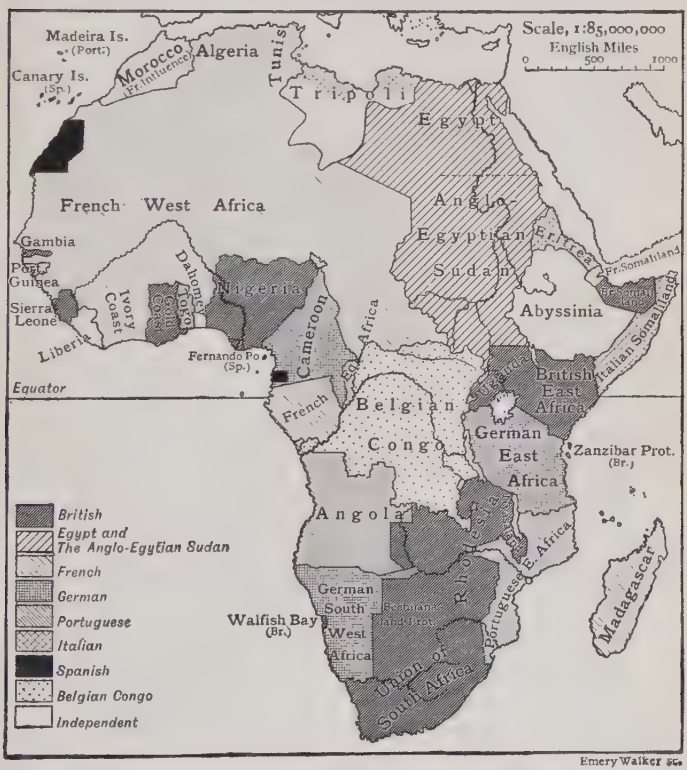
The Australian colonies for some time were anxious to follow the example of Canada and federate, but there were difficulties in the way, chiefly from the rivalry of New South Wales and Victoria. These were not overcome till near the end of the century; and in 1900 the Commonwealth of Australia Bill was passed by the Home Government. The colonists still occupy only a fringe of their vast island; much of the interior is desert; while the north is in the Tropics, and therefore unsuitable for white men, though there are a few settlers there. Another trouble in Australia is the occasional droughts, which sometimes last for several years.

The Great Boer War, 1899-1902.—All was going well in the Empire except in South Africa. There Krüger, instead of taking a warning from the Jameson Raid, was oppressing the Outlanders more than ever. He was bent on fighting the British for South Africa; and there is little doubt that he was encouraged to do so by Germany. With the Free State he could put about 80,000 fighting men in the field, and there were also the Dutch in the Cape Colony to help him. At last, in 1899, the Outlanders complained to the Home Government, and Chamberlain ordered the Governor of the Cape to have a conference with Krüger, but he was unable to obtain any real concessions. And, as troops were sent from India to protect Natal, and Krüger demanded that they should be withdrawn, war broke out in October.

The nation as a whole, and most of the Liberal leaders, approved of the war; but some of the Radicals thought it was wrong. On the Continent, especially in France and Germany, there was not unnaturally sympathy with the two brave little peoples who were defying the great British Empire. But neither France nor Germany would inter-

fere, owing to their rivalry and the overwhelming strength of the British navy. And during the whole war Britain was able to send out troops and supplies over six thousand miles of ocean in perfect safety.

Failure of the first Campaign.—General Buller, who had distinguished himself in the Zulu War, was sent out with



Map of Africa after its division among the Powers and the Boer War.

50,000 men. But in the end far larger numbers were wanted, as the Ministry had been warned. The distances were very great, and the country in Natal and

parts of the Transvaal very hilly, while the Boers, moving on horseback and fighting on foot, knew how to take advantage of the difficulties, and the British did not. Before General Buller's army arrived, the Boers had crossed the border of the Cape Colony, besieged Kimberley, the diamond town, and Mafeking further north; while in Natal, after two repulses, they had shut the Natal force in the town of Ladysmith.

General Buller sent two divisions, one to relieve Kimberley and the other to drive the Boers out of Cape Colony, and took his main army, 20,000 strong, to Natal to relieve Ladysmith. But in one week in December 1899, the "Black Week" as it was called, all three attempts were defeated, General Buller himself being repulsed by 5000 Boers entrenched behind the river Tugela at the village of Colenso.

Lord Roberts sent out. He relieves Kimberley, captures a Boer Force, and occupies Bloemfontein. General Buller relieves Ladysmith. 1900.—At this unpleasant surprise another army was sent out under Lord Roberts, with Lord Kitchener as his chief of the staff; while Canada, Australia, and New Zealand took up the cause of the Empire with enthusiasm, and sent a force of mounted men whose colonial life specially fitted them for fighting the Boers.

General Buller was left in command in Natal. Lord Roberts's plan was to relieve Kimberley and then advance on Bloemfontein and Pretoria, the capitals of the Orange Free State and Transvaal. It was not till the middle of February 1900 that he was ready. Fortunately the Boers had not taken advantage of their successes while they had the chance, for they were better in defence than in attack. In Natal they did make one attack on a hill defending Ladysmith; but they were repulsed with such loss that they never tried again. They had, however, repulsed General Buller again in an attempt to find a way through the hills round their position at Colenso.

When Lord Roberts did at last move, his success was very rapid. His cavalry, by a long and rapid ride round the Boer position, relieved Kimberley, and the infantry

London Stereoscopic Co., photo.]

Lord Roberts in the full dress of a Field-Marshal.

hurrying after them, were in time to surround the Boer general at a place called Paardeberg, and after a short siege, he had to surrender with 4000 men on Majuba Day.

February 27. The Boers in the Cape Colony had hurried back to defend their own country, but Lord Roberts forced his way to Bloemfontein, after a battle in which he might have surrounded them and caught Krüger himself if his cavalry had been quicker.

The day after the surrender at Paardeberg, General Buller at last relieved Ladysmith after a fortnight's hard fighting through the hills round the left of the Boer position. There was great joy at home at these successes, especially at the relief of Ladysmith; for the surrender of the British army there would have been a great disgrace.

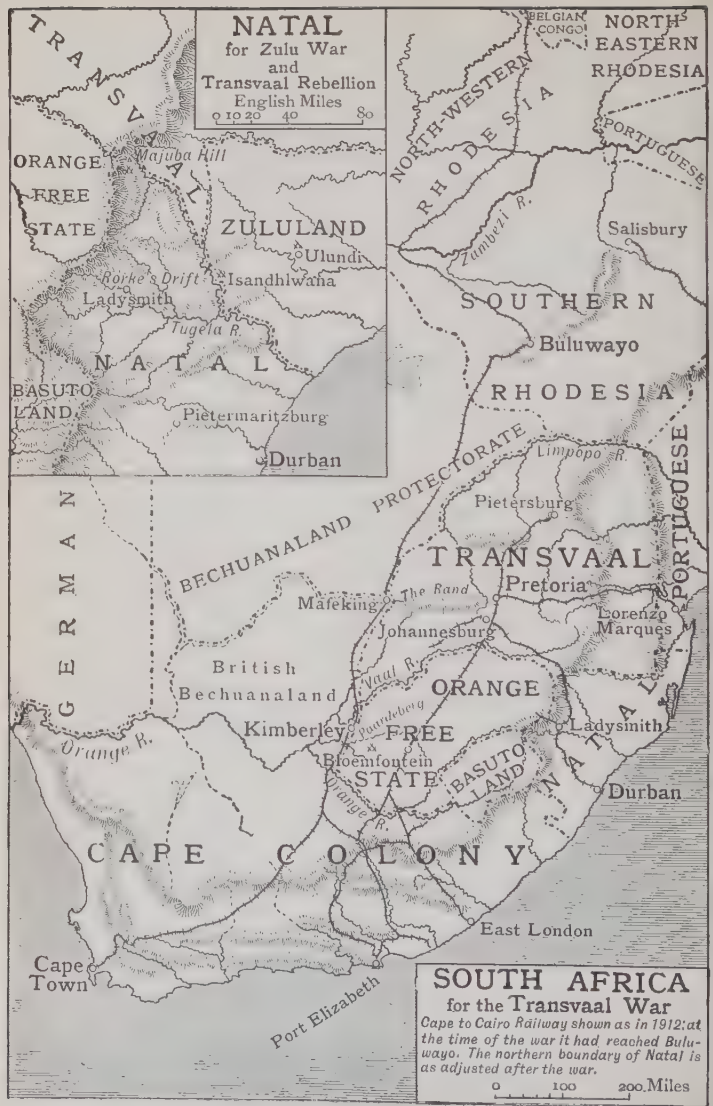
Successes of De Wet. Lord Roberts occupies Pretoria. End of the Regular War. Flight of Krüger, 1900, Summer. —Lord Roberts had turned the tide; it now only remained to crush the Boer resistance. But he had already discovered how difficult that would be owing to the rapidity with which the Boers could move on their horses. Already, just after the relief of Kimberley, a Free State leader, De Wet, had captured a supply convoy of 250 wagons. Then, while Lord Roberts was at Bloemfontein preparing for his next advance, he surprised some horse artillery crossing a stream, and captured another small force, taking altogether a thousand prisoners. Lord Roberts tried to cut him off, but owing to his knowledge of the country, he escaped.

Lord Roberts, however, was not to be deterred from his campaign. Starting from Bloemfontein in May, he drove the Boers before him, who were afraid of being surrounded, and occupied Pretoria and Johannesburg in June, releasing over three thousand British prisoners. He also sent a small mounted column from Kimberley, which relieved distant Mafeking; and thus all three Boer sieges had failed. From Pretoria Lord Roberts drove the Boers eastwards along the railway which runs into Portuguese territory, and General Buller fought his way up from Natal to meet him. In September the British reached the frontier; the Boer army broke up; and Krüger, who had lived for some

time in a railway carriage, took ship from the Portuguese port to Europe. His attempt to measure himself against the British Empire had failed, and the poor old man, disappointed of any help in Europe, died soon after.

Lord Kitchener and the long Guerilla War, 1900-1902. Submission of the Boers.—The Transvaal and Orange Free State had been proclaimed British territory; the chief towns, railways and mines were in our possession, and Lord Roberts returned home, leaving Lord Kitchener to end the war. It took him nearly two years to do so. He had to protect what he held of a country as large as France, and guard over a thousand miles of railway. The Boers, ably directed by their commander-in-chief, General Botha, rode about the country in small bands, cutting the railway, capturing trains, and falling upon detached forces. Lord Kitchener's plan was to use most of his infantry in garrisons and in bullet-proof block-houses which he built along the railways, and to mount as many men as he could and send out small columns against the Boer bands. There were continual little fights with varying success, and gradually the number of the Boers was diminished by losses and captures.

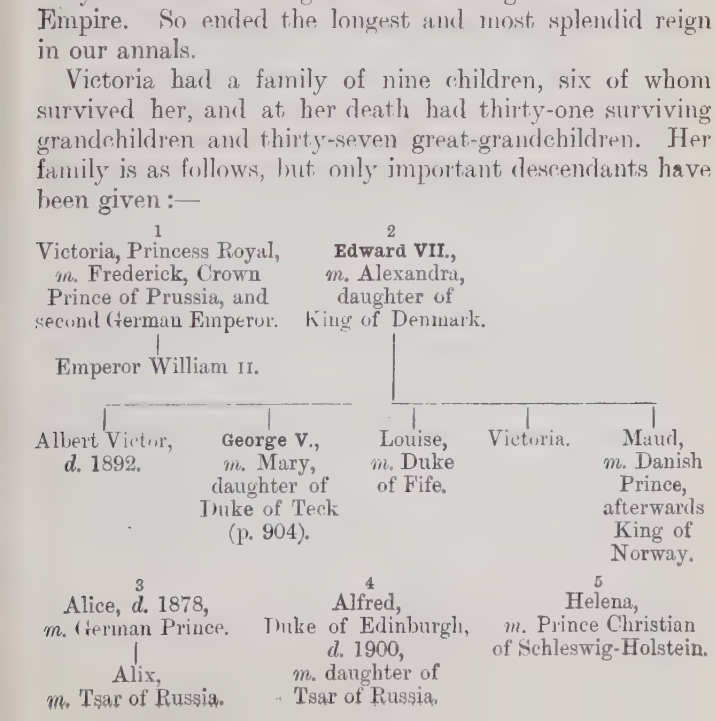
During this irregular or "guerilla" warfare De Wet was to the fore. Twice, too, he crossed into the Cape Colony and stirred up a rebellion there, which was not, however, very formidable. Each time he was hotly pursued by several mounted columns, and his capture seemed certain, but he always found a loophole of escape. At last, in the autumn of 1901, Lord Kitchener tried a new plan, sweeping a district with a line of mounted men fifty miles long, and driving the bands there on to a line of blockhouses and barbed wire defended by infantry. Many of the Boers used to break through, though once he captured eight hundred. But the "drives" broke their spirit. In March 1902, when about 40,000 Boers were prisoners, the Boer generals agreed to a Conference; and after much discussion they submitted, on condition that the Transvaal and Free State


NATAL
for Zulu War
and
Transvaal Rebellion
English Miles
0 10 20 40 80
TRANSVAAL
ORANGE FREE STATE
Majuba Hill
ZULULAND
Ulundi
Rorke's Drift
Isandhlwana
Ladysmith
Tugela R.
NATAL
BASUTO LAND
Pietermaritzburg
Durban
BELGIAN CONGO
NORTH EASTERN RHODESIA
NORTH-WESTERN RHODESIA
PORTUGUESE
Zambezi R.
Salisbury
SOUTHERN RHODESIA
Buluwayo
Limpopo R.
PROTECTORATE
BECHUANALAND
GERMAN
Pietersburg
TRANSVAAL
Pretoria
The Rand
Mafeking
Johannesburg
Lorenzo Marques
British Bechuanaland
Vaal R.
ORANGE FREE STATE
Kimberley
Vaalbank
Bloemfontein
Orange R.
BASUTO LAND
NATAL
Ladysmith
Durban
CAPE COLONY
East London
Cape Town
Port Elizabeth
SOUTH AFRICA
for the Transvaal War
Cape to Cairo Railway shown as in 1912: at the time of the war it had reached Buluwayo. The northern boundary of Natal is as adjusted after the war.
0 100 200 Miles
Emery Walker sc.

should in time have free constitutions like the other colonies. The Government also gave the Boers £3,000,000 to restock their ruined farms.

Death of Queen Victoria, January 22, 1901.—The Queen did not live to see the end of the war. At the time of the "Black Week" she had shown great spirit, driving about London to cheer her people; and soon after she paid one of her few visits to Dublin in recognition of the valour of the Irish troops. But the long labours of her reign, and the strain of the war, in which she lost a grandson from disease, began to tell on her health. During 1900 her powers were failing, and in January 1901 she sank rapidly and passed away in the eighty-second year of her age, and the sixty-fourth of her reign, to the bitter grief of the whole Empire. So ended the longest and most splendid reign in our annals.

Victoria had a family of nine children, six of whom survived her, and at her death had thirty-one surviving grandchildren and thirty-seven great-grandchildren. Her family is as follows, but only important descendants have been given:—


1
Victoria, Princess Royal, m. Frederick, Crown Prince of Prussia, and second German Emperor.
Emperor William II.
2
Edward VII., m. Alexandra, daughter of King of Denmark.
Albert Victor, d. 1892.
George V., m. Mary, daughter of Duke of Teck (p. 904).
Louise, m. Duke of Fife.
Victoria.
Maud, m. Danish Prince, afterwards King of Norway.
3
Alice, d. 1878, m. German Prince.
Alix, m. Tsar of Russia.
4
Alfred, Duke of Edinburgh, d. 1900, m. daughter of Tsar of Russia.
5
Helena, m. Prince Christian of Schleswig-Holstein.

6
Louise,
m. Duke of Argyll.

7
Arthur,
Duke of Connaught,
m. great-niece of first German Emperor.
|
Margaret,
m. Crown Prince of Sweden.

8
Leopold,
Duke of Albany,
d. 1884,
m. German Princess.
|
Leopold,
Duke of Saxe-Coburg-Gotha.

9
Beatrice,
m. Prince Henry of Battenberg.
|
Ena,
m. King of Spain.

Edward VII., 1901-1910.—King Edward VII., who was fifty-nine when he succeeded to the throne, was a thorough Englishman in character, and had made himself very popular by his geniality and love of sport. He had never, like former Princes of Wales of the Hanoverian House, made himself a party against the Crown, but had been careful to be friendly with statesmen of both parties. To mark the recent growth of the Empire, he added to his title of "King of Great Britain and Ireland" the words "and of the British Dominions beyond the Seas." He was not crowned till the summer of 1902, when the Boer War was over, for he wished the Empire to be at peace at the time. And the coronation was attended not only by the colonial premiers, Indian princes, Indian and colonial troops, but also by the leading Boer generals.

Edward VII.'s relationships with foreign sovereigns gave him a great position in Europe. He was uncle both of the German Emperor and of the Tsar of Russia, whose mother was sister to Queen Alexandra; and one of his daughters, Maud, married her cousin, a Danish prince, who became King of Norway; while after his accession two of his nieces, daughters of the Duke of Connaught and Prince Henry of Battenberg, married the Crown Prince of Sweden and the King of Spain. When in

London Stereoscopic Co. photo.

Edward VII.

1905 Norway separated from Sweden, to which it had been united since the Treaty of Vienna, and chose the Danish prince as king, Edward VII. was able, by his relationship with the two royal families, to prevent Sweden from trying to retain Norway by force.

"Entente Cordiale" with France. Naval Rivalry with Germany.—With republican France Edward VII. was very popular. When Prince of Wales he was often at Paris, of which he was very fond, and, as at home, was on friendly terms with men of all parties. Partly, no doubt, for this reason France became more friendly, and in 1904 the two governments came to an agreement on all disputed points, especially Egypt, which France left entirely to Britain. There was no alliance, only what was called an *entente cordiale*, or friendly understanding. But with the Germans we were growing less friendly. They had become our rivals in trade, and still regarded us as obstacles to their oversea power. Since the Boer War they had been building up a strong navy, and after the *entente cordiale* they began to increase it still faster. So just as in Lord Palmerston's last Ministry we built ships against France, now we had to build against Germany, to keep up our supremacy at sea.

Russia and China. Rise of the Japanese and their Victory over Russia. With Russia we had a new difficulty in the Far East; for, after making a railway across Siberia to the Pacific, she was gaining control over the decaying Empire of China, and so injuring our trade. But Russia found another enemy in the island kingdom of Japan. The Japanese, unlike the Chinese, had since about 1870 adopted European ways of government, and organised an army and navy on the European system, taking Germany as the model for their army, and Britain for their navy, and having their ships built in British yards. In 1894 they showed their strength by easily beating China in a war about Korea, which, though close to Japan, was then a dependency of China. In this war the Japanese had

taken a Chinese naval fortress, Port Arthur. Russia wanted Port Arthur for herself, as her Pacific ports are ice-bound in winter; so, with the support of France and Germany, she forced Japan to give Port Arthur back to China, and two years later she made China lease it to herself.

From this time the Japanese began to prepare for war with Russia, and made a treaty with Britain which promised to help them if any other Power helped Russia. In 1904 the war broke out; no other Power joined Russia; and the Japanese, to the surprise of the world, were victorious both by land and sea. This was a great humiliation to Russia, which had to drop her designs on China and give up Port Arthur, which the Japanese had retaken after a desperate siege. Soon after, to strengthen her position in Europe, Russia made up her quarrel with Britain; so now Britain, France, and Russia stood together against the Triple Alliance of Germany, Austria, and Italy.

Self-Government given to the Boer States. Federation of South Africa. The Colonial Dominions.—In the years 1906 and 1907 self-government was granted to the Transvaal and Orange Free State by the Liberals, who had come into office. And, though the Boers are in a majority, Natal and the Cape joined the two Boer states in a South African Union; for, as the whites are largely outnumbered by the natives, they felt that a single strong government was wanted. The Union was sanctioned by Parliament in 1910, and General Botha became Prime Minister. He, however, was never an extreme Boer, but opposed Krüger's policy before the war; and he now proclaimed his loyalty to the Empire. This loyalty he has maintained against an anti-British party among the Boers, especially since the outbreak of the war, when he crushed the rebellion under the famous De Wet.

The three chief groups of colonies have thus federated themselves. They and New Zealand are no longer struggling colonies, but rising nations, "dominions," as they

The
BRITISH EMPIRE
NORTH
AMERICA
Dominion of Canada
Victoria Land
Baffin Land
Queen Charlotte Is.
Vancouver I.
Newfoundland
Bermudas
Bahamas
West Indies
Jamaica
Barbados
Trinidad
Honduras
Guiana
SOUTH
AMERICA
Johnston I.
Palmyra I.
Washington I.
Fanning I.
Christmas I.
Baker I.
Phoenix Is.
Jarvis I.
Malden I.
Dudoza
Starbuck I.
Penhryn I.
Union Is.
Manihiki Is.
Cook Is.
Tonga Is.
Ducie I.
Pitcairn I.
Kermadec Is.
Chatham Is.
Equator
Tristan da Cunha
Falkland Is.
Sth. Georgia
Sth. Shetlands
Graham Land
British Isles
Channel Is.
EUROPE
Gibraltar
Malta
Cyprus
Gambia
Sierra Leone
Ascension
St. Helena
Walfish Bay
Ichabo I.
Br. South Africa
Zanzibar
Amirante Is.
Sey Belles
Madrid Is.
Sonaland
Somaliland
Ceylon
Chagos Is.
Cocos Is.
Christmas I.
India
Hongkong
Weihaiwei
ASIA
Borneo
Equator
Australia
Tasmania
New Zealand
Stewart I.
Auckland I.
Campbell I.
Macquarie I.
Antipodes Is.
Norfolk I.
Ld. Howe I.
New Hebrides (Br. & Fr.)
Sta. Cruz Is.
Solomon Is.
Gilbert Is.
Ellice Is.

are now officially described, and are already beginning to take a share in the naval defence of the Empire. The white population of the Dominions in 1910 was :—Canada, 7,500,000, including nearly 2,000,000 French , Australia, 4,500,000 ; South Africa, 1,000,000, more than half of whom are Dutch ; New Zealand, 1,000,000. Including the West Indies and other small colonies, the King's over-sea white subjects now number 15,000,000; and, as the population of Great Britain is only 45,000,000 against Germany's 60,000,000, it is plain that the time has come for some closer union with the mother country.

The Liberal Ministry. The House of Lords ; Home Rule. Death of Edward VII.—At home, during the last few years of the reign, party politics became exciting again. For various reasons the Unionist Government, which had lasted several years, became unpopular ; the chief reason probably was that Mr. Chamberlain wanted to give up Free Trade, partly because of the progress of the United States and Germany through Protection, and partly to help on Imperial Federation by a customs union with the colonies. Mr. Balfour resigned owing to his difficulties ; and the Liberal Ministry which succeeded won the greatest victory ever known at a General Election, in January 1906. For the Liberals had dropped Home Rule for the present, and the working classes did not want their food taxed. The Prime Minister was Sir H. Campbell Bannerman, who retired from ill-health in two years and was succeeded by Mr. Asquith, with Mr. Lloyd George as Chancellor of the Exchequer. Soon quarrels arose with the House of Lords, who in 1909 rejected the Budget, that is, the arrangement of taxation. There was therefore a General Election in January 1910, which the Liberals won, but with so reduced a majority that they were dependent on the Irish Nationalists ; so, to secure their support against the House of Lords, they agreed to bring in Home Rule.

A few months later, in May 1910, Edward VII. died at the age of sixty-eight.

SUMMARY.

Colonial ambition of Germany; Britain adopts an Imperial policy—Scramble for Africa—South Africa; Cecil Rhodes founds Rhodesia; Rhodes and Krüger—The Transvaal gold-mines and the discontent of the "Outlanders"; the Jameson Raid.

Egypt; the Nile War and capture of Khartoum; the Soudan under British Rule.

The Diamond Jubilee and the Empire; the progress of Canada; its Federation and the Canadian Pacific Railway—Federation of Australia—The Boer War; British defeats—Lords Roberts and Kitchener sent out—Success of Lord Roberts; annexation of the Transvaal and Orange Free State—Lord Kitchener and the long guerilla war—Death of Victoria.

Edward VII. and the new royal title—The *Entente Cordiale* with France Naval rivalry with Germany—The Liberal Ministry gives Self-Government to the Boer states; Federation of South Africa—The House of Lords and Home Rule questions.

DATES.

1898. Capture of Khartoum
1899. Boer War begins.

CHAPTER LXV

The Victorian Age and After

The Victorian Age. Penny Postage, 1840.—The great changes in national life which, as you have read, distinguish the nineteenth century from the eighteenth, were developed to such a pitch under Victoria that her reign is already known as the "Victorian Age."

Her reign was ushered in by one of the greatest boons bestowed on mankind, the Penny Postage. At that time the cost of a letter within the British Isles was from 2d. to 1s. 8d., according to distance, paid to the postman by the receiver. There were, as might be expected, many little tricks for avoiding this high payment, and one day, it is said, Rowland Hill, a schoolmaster and inventor, happened to see a dispute between a postman and a poor woman, who refused to take in and pay for a letter. He asked her about it, and she explained that she had arranged with an absent son that he should from time to time address a letter to her with nothing inside as a sign that he was well, so that there was no need for her to pay for the letter after seeing it in the postman's hand.

This incident made Rowland Hill think that there must be numbers of people who would write letters if they were cheap, while the cost of carrying a hundred letters was not much more than carrying one. So he proposed to Lord Melbourne that letters, up to half an ounce, should be carried throughout the British Isles for 1d., paid by the sender by means of an adhesive stamp. It took three years to convince the Post Office officials;

but in 1840 Penny Postage was established. At first, to Hill's disappointment, the profits of the Post Office fell by £1,000,000, though the number of letters was doubled, and people laughed at the stamps as "bits of sticking plaister to be dabbed on letters." But the numbers of letters steadily increased, and railways made carriage cheaper. Penny Postage was a great success and was adopted by foreign countries. In after years various improvements were introduced, as halfpenny postcards and the parcels post, Before the war the inland rate was 1d. for four ounces, throughout the Empire 1d. for one ounce, to foreign countries 2½d. for one ounce. The profit of the Post Office was over £5,000,000, more than three times what it was in 1839. Owing to the war the letter rate was doubled and the postcard rate was trebled; now they are 1½d. and 1d.

Railways and Railway Engineering.—Of the two great forces that have so altered the life not only of Britain but of the world in the nineteenth century—steam and electricity—steam, as you read, was first used with success in the eighteenth century, but the electric telegraph, the first practical use of electricity, dates from the beginning of Queen Victoria's reign.

In railways the only great change has been the recent introduction of electric power on short lines; but there has been steady improvement in the power and speed of the engines, and the size and comfort of the carriages, that have made the modern express train a very different affair to a train of William IV.'s reign. But in railway engineering there has been a great advance, especially in bridges and tunnels. The "Britannia" Tubular Bridge over the Menai Straits, the work of George Stephenson's son Robert, and opened in 1850, was at the time thought a most wonderful piece of engineering. But far more wonderful are the Tay and Forth Bridges of open steel lattice-work, nearly two miles long, opened in 1887 and 1890. An earlier Tay Bridge had been destroyed in 1879 by a terrible winter gale, while a train was crossing; every one

in it perished. Robert Stephenson also built a tubular bridge two miles long over the St. Lawrence; and in the United States and other countries there are bridges that rival those of the Forth and Tay.

Mountain and Under-Water Tunnels.—With the improvement of boring appliances came tunnels through mountain ranges. The first was the Mont Cenis, seven and a half miles long, opened in 1871, uniting France and Italy. Such mountain tunnels are not wanted in the British Isles; but we have under-water ones, such as the Severn Tunnel, four and a half miles long, under the Bristol Channel, opened in 1885. The first was the old Thames Tunnel, a quarter of a mile long, opened in 1843, and thought a great wonder at the time; originally constructed for foot passengers, it is now used by a railway. For many years there has been a project for a tunnel from Dover to Calais, and experimental works were begun; but it is thought safer to keep our country an island. In other countries trains are carried across lakes and straits on specially constructed steamers, and possibly some day such "train ferries" will be started between Dover and Calais. The most recent triumph in tunnelling is the Tube system in London, deep down below the sewers, electric wires, gas and water pipes, which is so useful an addition to the ordinary Underground Railway which was opened in 1862. The Tubes would not have come into being but for the invention of electric engines; for, as the tunnels are nowhere open, steam would have been impossible.

The Suez, Panama, and Manchester Canals.—Of all great engineering works none has so changed the world as the Suez Canal, a hundred miles long, from the Mediterranean to the Red Sea (1869), for it brings the Far East nearer to Europe, and indeed halves the sea route to India. The Suez Canal brought great fame to its originator, the Frenchman De Lesseps. But when later he tried to make a similar canal across the Isthmus of Panama, he failed utterly, and the investors in the scheme, mainly French,

lost all their money; for the Panama is not a level sandy plain like the Isthmus of Suez. There is a rocky ridge and a swift-flowing river in the way, and the climate is very unhealthy. Recently the United States government has taken over the work, and with improved appliances and health regulations has carried it to execution.

In the British Isles Manchester has constructed a ship canal thirty-five and a half miles long to Liverpool, by which large steamers can bring cotton straight to its mills. It was very expensive, and does not yet pay for its construction. Germany also made a ship canal to enable her warships to pass to and fro between the North Sea and Baltic without passing through the narrow Danish waters.

Steamers. The Modern Mail Steamer.—In steamers, which for some time were merely sailing ships with engines, there have been great improvements. The first was the invention of the screw, which proved more powerful than the paddle. The question was settled by a "tug-of-war" between a paddle and screw steamer of equal size, which the screw steamer easily won. Then, as engines increased in power, sails were used less and less on steamers, till in the last quarter of the century they were given up altogether, while iron, and then steel, took the place of wood. In 1859 a monster iron steamer was built called the *Great Eastern*, of 25,000 tons, six times as big as any steamer of the day; she had both paddles and a screw, and five masts. But she was too big for her engines, and proved a failure. However, a steady increase went on in the size of steamers and power of their engines, and, though larger and faster sailing ships, known as "clippers," were built, they only held their own for a time, and now there are few left. But there are still many small sailing ships used in trades where speed is no object. Most ocean "liners," that is, steamers belonging to a company or "line," are now over 10,000 tons, some even over 40,000, with luxurious arrangements for the comfort of the passengers. The Atlantic liners are the biggest and fastest of all; many cross the Atlantic

in five days. There is now a regular system of liners all over the world as safe and as regular as railways. But still, both on sea and land, from time to time terrible disasters occur, showing that man with all his cleverness is not all-powerful.

The Electric Telegraph. Submarine Cables.—For a long time experiments had been made on the Continent in sending messages by electricity; but the first practical success was the telegraph set up on the Great Western Railway from Paddington to Slough in 1844. The prin-

The *Great Eastern.*

ciple of the electric telegraph is that the sender of the message, by means of a current of electricity, can move a needle at the other end of the wire which spells out the message according to a prearranged alphabet.

Next came the submarine telegraph, the wire being enclosed in a gutta-percha cable laid on the sea bottom. The first submarine cable was laid from Dover to Calais in 1851, after one failure owing to its breaking. Then in 1857 came what must have seemed at the time an astounding project, the laying of a cable under the Atlantic from Ireland to New

York. Three attempts failed; in the first and third the cable broke while being laid; in the second the cable was laid, but after a few messages, ceased to work. Finally the *Great Eastern*, which had been used in the third attempt, accomplished the task in 1866. At the present day there are submarine cables all over the world, islands being used where possible for intermediate stations in mid-ocean.

Scientific Inventions. Electric Light. The Telephone.— During the second half of Queen Victoria's reign, and since, there has been a great development of inventions, mainly electric. In these Britain has had to share the credit with other nations, especially the United States. Sometimes, indeed, scientific men in different countries were experimenting on the same lines at the same time, and sometimes it is not certain to whom the real credit of an invention belongs. First of all, in the seventies, came electric light. The first kind, known as the "arc light," which was used in streets and large buildings such as stations, was not very successful owing to its unsteadiness. But soon the combined inventions of an Englishman, Swan, and an American, Edison, perhaps the greatest inventor of the day, produced the less powerful but quite steady "incandescent light," which proved a complete success, and was quickly adopted in public buildings, and gradually in town houses and churches. Electricity is also used to a certain extent for heating, cooking, and as a motive power. Gas, however, has not given up the struggle. New methods were found for making its light more brilliant; and it is still used in many houses, and generally for street lighting, as electric light casts too black a shadow. For heating and cooking, too, it is used much more than electricity, being much cheaper.

To travel at sixty miles an hour, to cross the ocean without sails, to send a message across the globe and receive a reply the same day, to light a room suddenly by merely turning a little handle, would have seemed marvellous to our forefathers; but what would they have thought of

being able to talk to a person far away and hear his voice in reply? And yet the "electric telephone," invented in 1876 by a Scotsman, Graham Bell, which conveys the voice by means of a wire, is now a common feature of our everyday life. People have talked at a distance of two thousand miles; and there is a line of fifteen hundred miles in Boston, United States, in ordinary use.

Wireless Telegraphy.—Another marvel is electric telegraphy without a connecting wire. This is the result of experiments by several scientists, British and foreign; but the first to make it a practical success was a young Italian, Marconi. In wireless telegraphy, as the electric current has no wire to travel along, it goes in every direction, and so has to be very much more powerful. It is sent off from an upright wire sometimes a hundred yards high, and can be received by any wire that is made to correspond with the sending wire. There is wireless communication from Britain to the United States, but for ordinary purposes it is not so convenient or cheap as the ordinary telegraph. In war it is of the greatest use. Wireless telegraphy is used also by ships, especially men-of-war, to communicate with the shore and with one another, and is most useful in cases of shipwreck; the wires on ships are of course shorter, and the message cannot travel as far as from land stations.

Road Locomotion. Tramways. Motor-Cars and Bicycles.—Tramways for horse-drawn omnibuses in towns originated in France and America. One was started in London in Bayswater by an American in 1861, but was soon given up, as the lines interfered with other wheeled traffic. Ten years later tramways were started again with the present form of line, and were successful. Their advantages are, the smoothness of motion and the greater weight that can be drawn. They are used in most great cities of the world, but in London they are impossible in the crowded parts. At the present day electricity has largely taken the place of horses.

From the heavy wooden "bone-shaker" of the middle of the nineteenth century, through a high steel bicycle with indiarubber tyres, came the modern "safety bicycle," with its geared axle-chain and pneumatic tyres. The "safety" was soon modified to make it suitable for women.

The motor-car is a French invention, and was made possible by the pneumatic tyre, and by the invention of a small and light engine or "motor," as it is called, driven by petroleum gas. In the early days of railways a steam road carriage was invented, but it was so heavy and cumbrous that it was soon given up. Motor-cars started near the end of last century, and now motor-'buses have driven out the horse omnibus and are rivalling the trams; and the old cabs have almost disappeared before the motor "taxi."

The Conquest of the Air.—The petrol motor has also achieved a victory over the air. For a long time people had tried in vain to make flying machines; but at the beginning of the century the "aeroplane" was invented, balanced by wide wings and driven by a petrol motor by means of a screw. The aeroplane can travel faster than a train, but it can only carry two persons, and is as yet very dangerous, for if anything goes wrong with the wings, or the motor stops, it falls like a stone. Much safer is the "dirigible," a cigar-shaped gas-balloon driven by a petrol motor, as it is kept up by its own buoyancy. The German "Zeppelin" dirigibles are of enormous length, and carry a crew of about twenty men. Both aeroplanes and dirigibles are used for dropping bombs and scouting.

Photography and the Cinematograph.—Photography (from a Greek word meaning light) arose from the discovery of the effect of light on certain chemicals, and was brought to success by a Frenchman, Daguerre, in 1839. His photographs, called daguerreotypes, were on glass; but very soon means of printing the plates on cards were invented. Gradually the methods of photography were improved, and photographs are now generally framed as pictures, instead of being kept in books as at first. Other

improvements, too, have made amateur photography an easy and favourite pastime. Finally, by means of electric power, rapid series of instantaneous photographs can be taken and reproduced as moving pictures or cinematographs (from two Greek words meaning movement and picture).

Scientific Inventions in War. Rifles and Cannons. Explosives.—Scientific invention has not been confined to peaceful objects; it has also been used to make the instruments of war more deadly than ever. The first really great change, since the bayonet made the modern infantry soldier, was the introduction of the rifle, with its grooved barrel, which could fire much farther and straighter than the smooth bore musket, the old "Brown Bess" of the British army. The first rifle was the Minié, invented by a Frenchman, which was adopted in the British army just before the Crimean War. Its place was soon taken in Britain by the "Enfield," so called because the Government factory is at Enfield in Middlesex. This was the rifle that caused the trouble of the "greased cartridges." The next improvement was the "breech-loader," which has a mechanism to open the barrel at the breech for the insertion of the cartridge, and strike the cap which forms part of the cartridge. Prussia had the first breech-loader, and in her war with Austria in 1866 it proved so superior to the muzzle-loader, firing five times as fast, that other nations followed her example, and the British Enfield was altered into a breech-loader. Soon improved breech-loaders were introduced, for each nation wanted to have the rifle that shot quickest, straightest, and farthest. Finally, about 1890, "magazine rifles" were invented, with a case under the breech containing half a dozen cartridges, which could be fired one after the other without reloading.

Cannons have been similarly improved, machine-guns invented firing hundreds of bullets a minute, and "smokeless" ammunition has taken the place of the old gunpowder; for new explosives have been discovered, some, such as

dynamite, so powerful that they cannot be used in guns at all.

With such deadly weapons you would think that the losses in war would have multiplied. As a matter of fact they are rather less, for armies engage now at a much greater distance, and in loose formation instead of the close order of Waterloo. Bright uniforms have also been given up, as they make a conspicuous mark at a distance. The British soldier's service dress is a grey cloth called khaki, and the old scarlet and other trappings are only kept up as full dress in peace for display.

Ironclads. The Modern Battleship.—The change in naval war has been still more startling. The old wooden navy reached its prime in the Crimean War, when the three-deckers were half as large again as the *Victory*, and were screw steamers with full sailing rig. Then you have read how the Emperor Napoleon built an armoured warship, and Britain had to follow suit. The ordinary naval cannons were no use against "ironclads," as the new warships were called, and larger and more powerful cannons were constructed. Then began a duel between cannon and armour, the cannon becoming more and more powerful, the armour thicker and also stronger by various inventions. The early ironclads, as you can see from the picture, were different from the wooden ships in appearance only in having but one tier of cannons and a beak at the bow for ramming an enemy. But in a few years, as the cannons grew still bigger, it was impossible to carry so many, and the Americans in their civil war had made ships with two very big cannons inside a heavily armoured turret that could turn in every direction. These turret-ships were for fighting in harbours and smooth water, but the idea was adopted for sea-going ironclads, and for several years there was much experimenting to find the best form of warship, with some curious results. One turret-ship capsized in a storm in the Bay of Biscay, and nearly every one on board, including the constructor, was drowned.

But at last a shape was produced which has been adhered to ever since, and adopted by foreign nations. In this type there is a strongly armoured central battery, the bow and stern being less strongly armoured; in the battery there were at first two pairs of the heaviest cannons in two turrets, and a dozen medium sized. Such were our battleships at the time of the Boer War, and the Japanese battleships which beat the Russians; but since

H.M.S. *Bellerophon*, one of the first ironclads.

then an advance has been made, and the new battleships carrying ten big cannons, weighing 100 tons, in five turrets. These latest ships cost over £2,000,000 each, more than the cost of the whole British fleet at Trafalgar. Their cannons are over forty feet long, and can hit a mark at ten miles with a projectile weighing 2000 pounds. Every year there was some improvement, as each nation tried to produce the best ship.

Torpedoes and Submarines.—The discovery of dynamite led to the invention about 1870 of an explosive machine for sinking warships, called the torpedo. It could not of course be fired, and the earliest torpedoes had to be placed under the ship, and then exploded by an electric wire. Two Turkish warships were sunk in this way by the Russians in the war of 1877-78. But the modern torpedo can travel itself for several hundred yards, by means of a screw worked by compressed air. It is six feet long, shaped like a pointed fish, the screw forming the tail, and it explodes on striking its object. The torpedo-boats which carry the torpedoes, are long, low, very fast vessels. They can only attack at night, for, if seen for any time, they are certain to be sunk; so it is a very dangerous service. Another explosive machine is the "mine," a sort of stationary torpedo which is anchored under the surface of the water. Both torpedoes and mines sank or disabled ships in the recent war between Russia and Japan, but it is still the battleship that decides naval wars.

Owing to the danger run by torpedo-boats, "submarines" have been invented which, by means of a store of compressed air, can travel under water for some distance, and so discharge their torpedoes, unseen except for their "periscopes" (tubes with mirrors), by means of which they aim. Their success against warships has been no greater than that of the torpedoes; for destroyers formed an effective guard against them, and many appliances were used to sink them. The Germans used them mainly to starve us out by sinking merchant ships.

General Advance of Science. Medical Science and Public Health.—Science itself, apart from inventions, has made enormous strides in every branch. Incessant minute investigation and experiment with ever-improving instruments have led to discoveries and theories undreamt of in the eighteenth century. Scientific men discuss and advance theories of the origin of the universe and of the human race, and they seem on the eve of discovering forces still more powerful than electricity. In medical science the

advance has been of the greatest benefit, from the use of chloroform in operations (1848) to the recently discovered "X-rays," by which bones and other substances can be seen through the flesh of the body. The causes of diseases are now more accurately known, and some complaints which used to baffle doctors can now be successfully treated. Scientific drainage and sanitation have lessened the ravages of certain diseases, and have banished the dreaded cholera, which came from Asia, and is still a danger to our soldiers in India. In England there were outbreaks in the reign of William IV., and at the time of the Crimean War, after which the question of sanitation was taken up; and a last outbreak in 1866 was very slight.

Social Life.—A striking feature of modern life is the growth of travelling owing to railways and steamers, and the summer holiday, which has been brought within the means of the once stay-at-home middle classes. Seaside resorts have sprung up all round the coasts; and for the more well-to-do there are the Highlands of Scotland, Wales, the English and Irish Lakes, and the Rhine and Switzerland abroad. For the wealthy in search of health and recreation, the Riviera and Egypt too have taken the place of Bath; and instead of the old tour of Europe they make the "World Tour," and visit the oversea Dominions.

The effect of the Queen's own character on the tone of social life has already been mentioned. The lax ideas of the eighteenth century, its open toleration of vice, drunkenness and gambling, finally disappeared. For a gentleman to be intoxicated in company is now unthinkable; even the moderate drinking of wine and spirits is distinctly decreasing. And among the lower classes the work of the temperance societies is steadily diminishing the evil. Public gambling has been suppressed except in the case of secret low-class clubs, which are a perpetual trouble to the police. Gambling, however, has a strange fascination for human

nature, and there is much high play in private houses; but the games are generally more of skill than chance. On the Continent, too, the only public gambling place is at Monte Carlo, in the tiny state of Monaco on the Riviera, which by some strange freak of fortune has remained independent; and the Prince derives a large income from the people, many of them English, who throng to the gaming-tables. Betting on horse-racing, in spite of the restrictions of the law, is very prevalent, and has even taken hold of the working class. Still, neither in betting nor gambling are fortunes lost as in the old days. The very strict ideas of the Evangelicals have indeed latterly died out. Dancing and theatres are no longer regarded as necessarily wicked, and Sunday amusements have certainly increased. But if we are gayer than fifty years ago, we are not more vicious, and foreign nations have less ground for accusing us of hypocrisy, which they are fond of doing.

The Church Revival. Dissent and the Salvation Army.—At the same time, by a High Church revival which followed the Evangelical movement about the beginning of the reign, the Church has finally awoke from the deadness caused by the Revolution of 1688. It has again taken its place as the Church of the country; its services have been improved and increased in number; and the clergy are more zealous in their duties and work among the poor. Dissent, which has now complete toleration, and in the colonies is on an equality with the Church of England, makes little actual progress; but the Salvation Army, founded by a Dissenter, "General" Booth, has great influence with the working classes, among whom it does great good, and has branches in many lands.

Sympathy with the Oppressed. Improvement in Prisons and Treatment of Criminals.—Sympathy, too, with the poor and oppressed, which, as you read, was carried too far in the case of savage races, has been still more active both in Parliament and among private persons. Many laws have been passed, especially since the working classes obtained the

vote, improving their condition, strengthening the regulations of women and child labour, lessening the hours of labour, securing compensation for injury during work, and giving free pensions to the aged. And there are many societies working among the poor, brightening their lives, giving town children holidays in the country, relieving the destitute, rescuing the waifs and strays of great towns, and bringing them up to earn a livelihood at home or in the colonies. The whole prison system has been reformed; punishments are deterrent instead of being vindictive, and youthful criminals are as far as possible reformed instead of being ruined for life by imprisonment. Flogging has been abolished in prisons except in special cases, and also in the army and navy. Public executions, which attracted crowds of spectators, have been put a stop to; and some well-meaning persons even advocate the abolition of hanging for murder.

Games.—The great development of outdoor games during the nineteenth century has undoubtedly helped to raise the tone of the nation by providing healthy recreation for leisure hours. Croquet, introduced about 1860, lawn-tennis about 1870, and the Scottish game of golf, which still later took such a hold on England, have been added to cricket and football, and can be enjoyed by both sexes; while football has become popular among the working classes. There is, however, a danger that games may be overdone, and divert the mind from the more serious business of life.

Dress.—By the early years of Victoria's reign gentlemen's town dress was much what it is now, except that high single collars with the tie wound round them were the fashion, as shown in the portrait of Lord Palmerston on page 1024. In the latter part of the century a change towards ease and comfort set in; light suits with lounge jackets, "billicocks," straw hats, soft hats, or latterly cloth caps, have been more and more taking the place of the morning or frock coat and tall hat, except for cere-

Dress in the Sixties. People viewing the wedding presents of the Prince and Princess of Wales

monial occasions. But in society in town the full morning dress is still *de rigueur*. Mr. Gladstone, visiting Oxford towards the end of his life, was much shocked at what he called the slovenly dress of the undergraduates. At the time of the Crimean War moustaches and beards, sometimes very long, came in. Then in society moustaches with long whiskers became fashionable. After 1870 beards became rare in the rising generation, and whiskers gradually disappeared. At the present day clean-shaving has again been adopted by many of the upper class.

In ladies' dress the crinoline went out before 1870, and bonnets gave place to hats. These at first were small, but towards the end of the century gave place to the large "picture" hats, copied from the pictures of eighteenth-century beauties. The more active life of young ladies, and their participation in games, has also led to their adopting simple cloth skirts and jackets for everyday wear.

Position of Women. Female Suffrage.—A striking feature of the Victorian Age has been the change in the position of women of the upper class. In the eighteenth century family life and marriage was their only outlook, and educated ladies were the exception. By the middle of Victoria's reign a demand arose for a freer life, an education that would enable those who wished to earn their own living, and some share in the interests and pursuits of men. Ladies' colleges have been founded at Oxford and Cambridge; the more modern universities also grant them degrees. There are a few lady doctors; many women are employed in the Post Office and other occupations; and girls play games in a way that would have astonished their great-grandmothers.

At the same time a certain number of women began to demand complete equality with man, especially the vote for Parliament. "Women suffrage," as it is called, was first proposed in Parliament in 1867, when it was decisively defeated. Since then, women were given the vote for County and Town Councils, but the agitation

for the Parliamentary vote still went on. A little before the war, some enthusiasts tried to promote their cause by breaking shop windows, interrupting public meetings, and worrying ministers. In 1917, partly owing to their splendid war-work, women over thirty received the vote.

Growth of Wealth.—The growth of wealth in the Victorian Age has been very marked, as is shown by the Income Tax. When Sir Robert Peel, in 1846, imposed it during his Ministry, it brought in £700,000 for every penny levied on £1 of income, but in 1900 it brought in over £3,000,000. This means that the wealth of the country has increased fourfold, while the population has only doubled. The reason is that our trade began to grow very rapidly owing to railways and steamers, which made the carriage of goods cheaper, the Penny Postage and electric telegraph, continual improvement in machinery, the growth of the colonies, and finally the introduction of Free Trade, at a time when Britain was by far the greatest manufacturing nation. Other nations, however, did not adopt Free Trade, as Cobden had hoped, but built up their own manufactures by Protection, especially the United States and Germany, which are now our chief rivals. So that latterly our progress has not been so rapid.

The Working Class Question. Socialism.—Unfortunately, though the higher class workers have now better wages and live in comparative comfort, there is still much poverty and often unemployment in the lower ranks of "unskilled workers." These are the people that crowd the wretched slums of the large towns; and all the efforts of charitable societies seem able to do little to lessen the evil. This existence of great poverty side by side of great wealth is one of the great difficulties of the present day in all countries. Some people think it is owing to the present state of society, in which everybody has to compete with everybody else to make a livelihood. The result of this, they say, is that the employers get too much of the profits and the workers too little, and the weakest go to the wall.

To prevent this, and make everybody equal, they think that private property should be abolished, and that the State should own everything and apportion the work to individuals. This strange idea is called "Socialism," which means "comradeship" (from the Latin *socius*, a comrade). It originated in France and Germany in the middle of the nineteenth century; but how it could be put in practice no one can say. An experiment was indeed tried by an enthusiastic labour leader of New South Wales, who started a Socialist colony of about two hundred persons in Paraguay in South America. But the settlers quarrelled among themselves, and were careless in their work; many went away, and after a few years they were reduced to such straits that the land was divided up as private property, whereupon the colony at once began to prosper.

Many British working men and labour leaders are more or less "Socialists," though not so advanced as those on the Continent. They content themselves with demanding that the nation should own all land, and that the Government should take over and work all railways and mines, and even provide work for everybody, though how this is to be done they do not explain. Tramways are already owned by Town Councils, while free education, old age pensions, and laws passed for the protection of workers are distinctly socialistic.

Anarchists and Nihilists.—On the Continent, in addition to the Socialists, there were desperate revolutionaries known as "Anarchists," and in Russia "Nihilists," both of which names mean people who want no government at all. Their weapon was assassination, often by dynamite bombs. They murdered a Tsar of Russia and many Russian officials, a King of Italy, a King of Portugal, an Empress of Austria, a President of the French Republic, and two Presidents of the United States, and tried to kill the King of Spain on his wedding day. Of the Russian Bolshevists, who seized the government during the Great War, you will be told later.

Strikes and the Trade Unions.—The chief weapon of the

workers is the strike. Originally strikes were only for better wages, and confined to one place. But now the different unions in each trade have combined, so that the employers have been forced to combine too, and strikes now take place in whole industries. Their object is really to secure for the unions a voice in the management of the industry, especially about wages. These strikes are very bad for trade, and inconvenient to the public, and are generally attended with much violence; for the strikers try by force to prevent the non-unionists, of whom there are a large number, from working. But strikes also use up the money of the unions, cause great distress among the men and their families, and are seldom entirely successful; so they do not occur very often.

Trade unions have done good in securing the workers fair treatment, but now they are trying to gain too much power. Some employers therefore give their workers a share in the profits, in addition to their wages, to prevent them striking. This "profit-sharing" might solve the labour difficulty, but the leaders do not like it, as it would weaken the unions.

Labour and Socialism in the Colonies.—In Australia and New Zealand, where every man has a vote and there is less distinction of classes than in the Old Country, the Labour party and the trade unions are very strong, and for many years a Labour Ministry has been in power in the Commonwealth Parliament. In both countries the Government owns the railways and tramways. The hours of labour are shorter than in Britain; there are arbitration boards to prevent strikes, which, however, they cannot always do; and in Australia there is a minimum wage fixed. Some years ago there were some very bad strikes in New South Wales, and though the employers won in the end, great harm was done to the prosperity of the country. Even immigration from home was hindered by restrictions placed on it to protect the Australian workers, though the number of inhabitants is very small for so huge a country.

Canada, on the contrary, with her powerful rival on her

borders, could not afford rash experiments, and she has used every inducement to attract good settlers from the mother country; that is why her population has increased so much. Australia is now recognising her mistakes; the Labour party is losing its power, and prosperity is returning.

Architecture and Art.—About the time of the accession of Victoria there was an improvement in public archi-

Valentine, photo.

Truro Cathedral.

tecture. No real new style has been produced. But for churches, and occasionally other buildings, Gothic has been revived. A lighter and more varied form of the classical style without the temple front is generally used for public buildings, and sometimes a style borrowed from the East. Two cathedrals, the only ones except St. Paul's built by the English Church since the Reformation, Truro

begun in 1880 and lately completed, and Liverpool, still building, are fine specimens of early Gothic.

In the new Houses of Parliament, built in the opening years of the reign, the Tudor Gothic style was used with great effect. The Government offices in Parliament Street are good examples of modern Italian style: those at the lower end were built in the last ministry of Lord Palmerston, who disliked Gothic; those higher up were built at the beginning of the present century, and show a distinct improvement. The new Law Courts in the Strand, opened in 1882, are a handsome Gothic building: but Gothic did not prove suitable for the internal arrangements, and the experiment has not been repeated.

Private houses, during the first quarter of the reign, were plain, low-roofed buildings of brown brick and stucco, but later, red brick and high-pitched roofs, after the style of the Stuart days, have come into fashion.

Furniture, which in the eighteenth century had been so beautiful, had by Victoria's accession become heavy and tasteless. Later in the century came a change; old styles were revived, and now high prices are given for real old furniture.

Growth of London.—London of to-day would hardly be recognised by the citizens of the eighteenth century. Fine broad streets have been made through some of the slums, the latest of which are Aldwych and Kingsway at the east end of the Strand. The mud flats of the Thames at low water have been abolished by the Embankment, from Blackfriars to Chelsea on the north, and Westminster Bridge to Battersea on the south, the first part of which was opened in 1868. Fine modern hotels, enormous shops, handsome clubs, great public buildings, numerous theatres and music-halls, even in the suburbs, great railway stations, of which, however, only the more recent have any architectural style, ugly iron railway bridges, and the Underground Railway and the tubes, all testify to the enormous growth of the life and business of London. Wood and asphalte paving

have taken the place of the old cobbles; the streets are clean and well lighted; wonderful order is kept by the calm and efficient police. Instead of a few private carriages hackney coaches and carts, motor-'buses taxi-cabs and huge motor lorries crowd the busiest parts, with private motors and a few carriages in the season; and outside the busiest parts trams and motor-'buses run for miles into the furthest suburbs.

With cheap and easy means of transit—ordinary railways, the branches of the Underground, trams and motor-'buses—the extension of London and the swallowing up of the suburbs has gone on more rapidly than ever. The area over which the London Council rules, from Hampstead Heath in the north to Wimbledon Common in the south, contains 7,000,000 inhabitants. But the suburbs really extend farther, and from over fifty miles round business men come up daily to their work.

Literature.—The great writers mentioned at the end of the last period were all in their prime during the first half of the Victorian period. Tennyson published in 1850 his greatest poem, *In Memoriam*, on the early death of a college friend, and the same year he was made Poet Laureate in succession to Wordsworth. After this his chief work was the *Idylls of the King*, stories in blank verse of the legend of King Arthur. Tennyson was made a peer in 1884 by Gladstone, much against his will, and he died in 1892.

Macaulay, soon after his return from India, began his great *History* in the third year of Victoria's reign. Starting with the reign of James II., he intended to bring it down to the nineteenth century; but his health failed, and he died in 1859 before he had quite finished the reign of William III. His *History*, parts of which had already been published, is a splendid piece of writing, and gained him a peerage; but, as a leading Whig politician, he could not help making it too much a glorification of his party.

Carlyle's great works in this period were the *Letters of Oliver Cromwell* and his *History of Frederick the Great*, both strong rulers after his own heart. In spite of his contempt

for popular government, Carlyle was held in great respect, and was known as the "Sage of Chelsea," where he died in 1881.

Charles Dickens followed up *Pickwick* with his wonderful series of novels, while his great rival, Thackeray, made his name by *Vanity Fair* in 1848. These two novelists, who have never since been equalled, are very different. Thackeray, who mocked at the frivolity and worldliness of society, is generally preferred by persons of literary taste. Dickens, with his more lively imagination and love of caricature, wrote chiefly of the middle classes, and has still probably more readers than any other novelist, including Scott. Both, but especially Dickens, enriched our literature with a series of characters that will never die.

Of the many other novelists of these days and since, the number of whom is steadily increasing, Charlotte Brontë and "George Eliot" (whose real name was Mary Evans), worthy successors of Jane Austen, have won places in literature; as have probably George Meredith and Stevenson. Charles Kingsley, too, country clergyman, sportsman and scientist, should not be passed over, for his novels taught the duty of living a healthy, manly, Christian life. Of the numerous present-day novelists it is too soon to speak.

Histories, since Macaulay's, have been important rather as scientific treatises than literature, except Froude's *Henry VIII.*; and Froude is considered still more of a partisan than Macaulay.

Journalism and Illustrated Papers.—Two interesting events at the beginning of the reign of Victoria are the starting of *Punch* in 1841 and of the *Illustrated London News* in 1842. *Punch*, to which Thackeray was an early contributor, has always been noted for the high tone of its pictures and writing compared with the coarseness of our earlier caricaturists, and of foreign comic papers, whose attacks on the Queen during the Boer War caused great resentment in England.

Newspapers gradually became cheaper and more numerous, especially after the duty on paper was abolished in 1861, and, consequently, enormously increased their circulation. Daily papers, even the *Times* for a short period came down to a penny, and halfpenny dailies sprang up; but the war has raised the prices again. Owing also to the improvement of the art of illustration, and the invention of cheaper processes, illustrated papers and magazines have multiplied. But this progress has not been all gain: the mass of commonplace and sensational writing continually poured out is not improving to the national taste.

SUMMARY.

The Victorian Age—Penny Postage—Railways—The Suez Canal—Steamers—The Electric Telegraph; Submarine Cables—Scientific Inventions; Electric Light; the Telephone—Wireless Telegraphy—Tramways—Motor-Cars and Bicycles—Aeroplanes—Photography and the Cinematograph—Science applied to war; Modern Rifles; Explosives—Ironclads; the modern Battleship—Torpedoes and Submarines—Scientific Study and Theories—Medical Science and the improvement in Health.

Higher tone in Society; decline of Drinking and Gambling—The Church Revival—Sympathy with the Poor; improved treatment of Criminals—Games—Dress—Position of Women; Female Suffrage—Growth of Wealth—The Working Class Question; Socialism—Trade Unions and Strikes—The Labour Question in Australia—Architecture—Growth of London—Literature.

DATES.

1840. The Penny Post.
1844. First Electric Telegraph.

SOVEREIGNS OF GREAT BRITAIN.[1]

1760-1910.

Dates of beginning of reigns.

George III. . . .	1760	Victoria	1837
George IV. . . .	1820	Edward VII. . . .	1901
William IV. . . .	1830	George V. . . .	1910

IMPORTANT DATES.

1760-1910.

1783. Independence of the American Colonies.
1788. Beginning of the Colonisation of Australia.
1789. The French Revolution.
1800. Union with Ireland.
1805. Battle of Trafalgar.
1815. Battle of Waterloo.
1825. The First Railway.
1832. First Reform Bill passed.
1846. Repeal of the Corn Laws.
1854. Crimean War.
1857. Indian Mutiny.
1867. Federation of Canada.
1871. German Empire founded.
1881. Majuba Hill.
1885. Fall of Khartoum.
1886. Defeat of First Home Rule Bill.
1898. Capture of Khartoum.
1899. Boer War.
1900. Federation of Australia.
1910. Federation of South Africa.

[1] In 1800 the name of the nation became the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, or, shortly, the United Kingdom. The royal title has been altered by the omission of 'France,' after the Treaty of Amiens in 1802, and by the addition of 'Empress (or Emperor) of India' in the latter part of Victoria's reign, and the insertion of 'and the British Dominions beyond the Seas' after Ireland at the accession of Edward VII.

CHAPTER LXVI

George V.[1] 1910

The Great War

Troubles at the time of George V.'s Accession.—George v., who succeeded to the throne in his forty-fifth year, was the second son of Edward VII., his elder brother, Prince Albert Victor, having died at the age of eighteen. He was faced, at his accession, with troublous times both at home and abroad. At home the dispute between the two Houses of Parliament was at its height; the Home Rule struggle was known to be approaching, and there was great unrest among the working classes, whose powerful trade unions were faced with similar organisations of the employers, and bitter and widely extended strikes were the result. Abroad Germany was growing increasingly aggressive, though the full extent of the danger was known only to the Government.

The Parliament Bill. Ulster and Home Rule.—In the Session of 1910, as a result of the Liberal victory at the General Election, the Lords passed the Budget of 1909. But Mr. Asquith brought in a Parliament Bill declaring that the House of Lords must be reformed, and in the meantime any measure rejected by the Lords could be presented to the Sovereign for his consent, if passed in three successive sessions by the Commons. It also shortened the life of a Parliament from seven to five years. The Unionists were ready to reform the House of Lords, but strongly resented

[1] In 1917 George v., to dissociate the Royal House from its German connection, abolished all its German titles and substituted the surname of Windsor for Guelph.

the restriction of its powers. The Bill, after passing the Commons, was rejected by the Lords; a Conference of party leaders led to no result; and after another General Election in December, which made no change in the strength of the parties, the Unionist Lords, threatened with the creation of five hundred new Peers, gave way and accepted the Bill (1911).

The following year a Home Rule Bill for Ireland was introduced; and the Protestants of Ulster, deprived of the protection of the House of Lords, which had saved them from Home Rule in 1893, declared that they would fight sooner than accept it, and organised themselves into volunteer corps. This was against the law in Ireland; but the Government took no steps, fearing the sympathy felt for Ulster in England and in the army. Thus two years passed; the Home Rule Bill was twice voted by the Commons and rejected by the Lords; and the Ulstermen were drilling and arming.

German and Austrian Ambitions.—Abroad the war clouds were steadily rolling up. In 1905 there had been trouble between Germany and France over Morocco, where France was extending her influence. It arose again in 1911, when the German Emperor sent a warship to a Moroccan port, and it was only settled by France compensating Germany with some territory in the French Cameroons in West Africa. On this occasion the British Government had publicly stated its intention of supporting France, if necessary, by force of arms.

More dangerous still were the designs of Germany and Austria towards the East. Germany had gained great influence in the decaying Turkish Empire, and was using it to construct a railway through Asia Minor and Mesopotamia to Bagdad and the Persian Gulf, which not only threatened our interests in Persia, but also the safety of India. Austria's object was to gain the great seaport of Salonica in Turkey; and already in 1908 she had annexed the Turkish provinces of Bosnia and Herzegovina (on the

Photo by W. and D. Downey.

George V., in naval uniform.

Adriatic), which had been placed under her administration by the Treaty of Berlin in 1878. This irritated Russia, as the two provinces are of the same Slav race as herself, and she had freed them from Turkey; but weakened by the Japanese War, she could only protest, in face of a threat of war from Germany.

The Balkan War and its results, 1912-13.—The immediate obstacle to Austria's designs was the little Slav state of Serbia, now hostile to her owing to trade quarrels. But the Balkan states, which had been freed from Turkey in the nineteenth century by Russia, had their own petty rivalries of which Austria might take advantage. However, in 1912, Greece, Serbia, and Bulgaria joined together to attack their common enemy, Turkey, and, to the disgust of Germany and Austria, were unexpectedly successful. Turkey lost most of her territory in Europe, Salonica falling to Greece. Unfortunately Bulgaria at once quarrelled with Greece and Serbia (1913) over the spoils, partly no doubt owing to the secret influence of Germany and Austria, and being attacked also by Roumania and Turkey, was obliged to surrender part of her conquests.

All through the Balkan troubles there was fear that Austria's interference against Serbia might provoke a European war; and our Foreign Minister, Sir Edward Grey, was working hard and successfully for peace with all his skill and patience. It was plain, however, that at any time a spark might light the conflagration. Germany, as is known now, was resolved on war when a fitting opportunity should come. Britain, she fondly hoped, entangled with the Irish trouble, and ruled by the Liberal party largely averse to war, would hold aloof; or if we did join in, first France and then Russia would be crushed before our small army could give any effective help, while her huge Zeppelin airships and submarines would make up for the inferiority of her navy. France and Russia overthrown, Britain was to be the next victim; and Germany would attain the leading place in the world, to which, in

the eyes of all Germans, her military and intellectual superiority entitled her.

The year 1914. The Ulster trouble. The Serajevo Murders and their consequence.—Thus with unrest at home and abroad the fateful year 1914 opened. In the summer the Irish trouble promised to come to a head with the third passing of the Home Rule Bill. So threatening was the attitude of the Ulster Protestants that at Easter the Government at last tried to use force; but the resignation of a cavalry general when ordered to march north from the Curragh Camp compelled them to desist. Then in view of the European situation they called a Conference of the leaders of the Ulstermen and Nationalists at Buckingham Palace; but it broke down on the question of how many counties of Ulster should be excluded from the Home Rule Bill.

A few days later the spark came. On 28th June the heir of the Austrian Emperor, when making a progress through Bosnia, was murdered with his wife by a Bosnian student in the streets of its capital. The crime was supposed to have been plotted in Serbia, and the opportunity was seized by Germany to bring on the war she wanted, by forcing Russia to take up arms in defence of Serbia, being of the same Slav race. Accordingly, but not till 23rd July, nearly a month after the murders, Austria made most extravagant demands on Serbia for reparation, which were to be accepted in forty-eight hours. Though, by the advice of Russia, Serbia objected only to the two worst demands, Austria on the 25th July began hostilities.

Outbreak of the Great War. The Fourth of August 1914.—Our Foreign Minister, Sir Edward Grey, strove hard to avert war and proposed a conference. But Germany, while outwardly professing a wish for peace, secretly supported Austria, and while negotiations were still going on, on 1st August 1914 declared war on Russia on the ground that she was "mobilising" (preparing for war) against her as well as to help Serbia, and then declared war on France.

As the Eastern frontier of France was strongly fortified, the German plan was to make the attack through Belgium, the neutrality of which, as has been mentioned, had been guaranteed in 1839 by France, Britain, Russia, Austria, and Prussia. On 4th August German troops entered Belgium; the British Government demanded that its neutrality should be respected; Germany refused; and by that night we were at war.

Italy, always at heart hostile to Austria, held aloof, being bound to assist her allies only if they were attacked, and indeed later on joined Russia, France, and Great Britain against her. So Germany and Austria were pitted against Russia, France, and Britain, supported, contrary to German expectation, by Britain's oversea dominions and her Indian feudatories.

At home all party strife at once ceased, and the Home Rule Bill was passed, not to be put into force till after the war and with no compulsion to Ulster.

Lord Kitchener was made Secretary for War. He at once began to raise a fresh army by calling for 100,000 recruits. In the end he raised several hundred thousand, but even that was not enough, and in the middle of the war (1916) Conscription had to be enforced. For those above military age there was plenty of work: special constables were wanted to relieve the police, many of whom had to join up; the places of younger men who had gone to the Front had to be filled up; and all the Government staffs had to be largely increased. The women also did such splendid work that their demand for the vote was granted after the war. Numbers served as nurses, and in many other capacities. Working women laboured in the munition factories, for the supply of sufficient shells and other ammunition was one of our great difficulties. The whole country had to submit to a Defence of the Realm Act, in which the Government could make any regulations it chose, and even imprison without trial.

The First Campaigns. Mons, the Marne, and Ypres.—In August the Belgian Army, after a brave resistance at Liège, was driven into Antwerp before the Allies could come to their support. But its resistance gave time for our Expeditionary Force under Sir John French to join the French Army under General Joffre, on the northern frontier of France. It numbered about 100,000 men, while the French and German armies were each over 1,000,000. The French were driven back; so the British, on their left, had to retreat too, after inflicting heavy losses on a superior German force at Mons; and during the retreat fought another desperate battle. The Germans now made sure of taking Paris; they had advanced south of the river Marne, but, in the second week of September, by a mistake of their general and the skill of the French general, Joffre, they were driven back after several days' fighting (called the Battle of the Marne) north of the river Aisne, and Paris was saved.

The Germans now tried to reach Calais, but in the two desperate battles of Ypres, each lasting several days, in November 1914 and March 1915, they were repulsed by the British. The two armies now confronted one another in a long line of entrenchments from the North Sea at Nieuport to the Swiss frontier. So the Germans held a great slice of Northern France and nearly all Belgium. Antwerp they had captured in the autumn of 1914, but the remains of the Belgian Army escaped and joined the British. The Germans had committed horrible atrocities in overrunning Belgium, and held it down with brutal sternness. From this time (1915) our Army began to increase in numbers with troops from our oversea dominions, who did splendid service, with "Kitchener's Army" (as it was called), and with Territorials. Indian troops were also brought over, but the climate did not suit them, and they were used instead in our Eastern campaigns; for this year Turkey joined Germany and Austria, and then Bulgaria. Now Italy joined the Allies, as Japan had

already done in order to drive the Germans from their settlement in China. There was hard fighting in France in the summer of 1915 in which we joined twice, but very little ground was gained; soon after Sir John French was succeeded in the command by Sir Douglas Haig. The Russians, from whom much was expected owing to their numbers, were handicapped by want of arms and ammunition. They won victories over the Austrians, but were badly beaten by the Germans in 1914 and 1915.

Gallipoli, Serbia, and Salonica, 1915.—After Turkey had joined Germany, an expedition largely composed of Australians landed, after fierce fighting, on the Peninsula of Gallipoli. But the Turkish position was very strong among rocky hills; our attacks were repulsed, though one was very near success, and at the end of the year the troops were withdrawn. Serbia, the cause of the war, twice repulsed Austrian invasions, but at the end of 1915 it was attacked on one side by Germany and Austria, and on the other by Bulgaria, and so was quickly overrun. British and French troops were sent round by sea, but arrived too late; all they could do was to hold the important port of Salonica, save the relics of the Serbian army, and bar any advance further south.

Death of Lord Kitchener. Battle of the Somme. The Russian Revolution.—The year 1916 was very eventful in the West. It began with a German advance against the great fortress of Verdun; in weeks of hard fighting they drove the French from several forts and positions, but Verdun itself they never reached. At the end of May came the naval battle of Jutland, to be mentioned later. In June came the sad loss of Lord Kitchener. He started on a cruiser for Russia to try to improve things there, but north of Scotland the cruiser sank, probably by striking a mine, and nearly all on board perished. Then in July began the great Allied attack, known as the Battle of the Somme, which lasted till the end of the year, and won a considerable amount of ground. It

started again the next spring (1917) and more ground was won, but the German line was not broken. Later an attack was made from Ypres to drive the Germans from the coast, but the wet weather reduced the country to such a sea of mud that no further progress could be made.

Photo by Russell & Son.
Field-Marshal Earl Haig.

The French meanwhile suffered heavy loss in an unsuccessful attack north of the Aisne. Unfortunately for us, a revolution broke out in Russia this year, and eventually the power fell into the hands of the workmen's councils, known as "Soviets." The soldiers refused to fight any more, and the leaders of the Soviet, two Jewish Socialists who were probably in league with Germany, made peace.

The Germans were now able to help the Austrians, who, by themselves, were nearly always unsuccessful, against the Italians, and inflicted a tremendous defeat on them, but the Italians rallied in time to save Venice from capture.

The War in the Air. Zeppelin and Aeroplane Raids.— In this war aircraft were used for the first time, mainly for scouting, directing artillery fire by wireless, and bombing the positions of the enemy. Thousands of aeroplanes were built; numbers of air conflicts took place, each side trying to obtain the mastery of the air; and generally the Allies had the upper hand. The Germans also, from the summer of 1915, used dirigible airships, their famous Zeppelins, to bomb London and other places in the east of England on nights when there was no moon. They sometimes caused considerable damage and loss of life, but they obtained no real striking success, and failed to affect the spirit of the nation, which bore the infliction with great fortitude. Gradually our defences against airships improved; our airmen, in aeroplanes, then succeeded in bringing some down in flames, and at last out of twelve attacking Zeppelins six were lost, some in England and the rest on the return journey in France. As a defence against air-attacks all towns on the east of England were kept in darkness at night, and anybody showing a light was liable to punishment.

The Naval War. The Submarine Menace. Jutland.— As the German battle-fleet was inferior in numbers to ours, for a long time it kept in port; so we were able to stop the oversea trade of the Germans and gradually reduce them to great straits for food and many materials. There were, however, several German cruisers in distant seas, which, for a time, preyed upon our trade. Two of them, large armoured cruisers, sank two of ours which engaged them in battle off the coast of Chili; but two of our newest battle-cruisers, sent out secretly, surprised them at the Falkland Islands and sank them in their turn. The careers of the others were gradually brought to an

end, and by the end of 1914 there was no German flag flying on the ocean except on submarines.

In the North Sea the German battle-cruisers twice came out and bombarded east coast towns; the first time they escaped our battle-cruisers only owing to a mist, and the second time they were brought to action, and in their flight home lost one ship sunk. At last, in the end of May 1916, the whole German fleet came out, and there was a battle known as the Battle of Jutland. The Germans call it a victory because three of our battle-cruisers were blown up; but soon after, our main fleet coming up, the Germans escaped in the evening mist, and reached home the next day so knocked about that for the rest of the war they never came out again.

The real naval weapon of the Germans was the submarine. Submarines sank many merchant ships, but did little against our Navy and could not interfere at all with the passage of troops and supplies across the Channel. Their worst and most injudicious act was the sinking of the great Atlantic liner, the *Lusitania*, which greatly angered the United States as numerous Americans lost their lives in her. At the beginning of 1917 the German Government felt their only chance of winning the war was to starve us out, and declared that they would sink any vessel of any kind or nation in British waters. Our Government, therefore, had to put the nation on rations, greatly restricting the amount of meat, butter, and the like each person might buy. In a few months, though the public did not know it, there was actual danger that the submarine blockade would be successful. Fortunately, however, these submarine sinkings, which were contrary to the laws of war, finally brought the United States into the war, and with the help of the American destroyers we were able to convoy merchant steamers. Gradually, too, we had been improving our methods for destroying submarines, and by the autumn the danger had passed away.

Palestine and Mesopotamia.—The Germans were very anxious to turn us out of Egypt, and in 1915 sent a Turkish force from Palestine against it, which was repulsed in an attempt to seize the Canal. Later on we invaded Palestine, but were in our turn repulsed in an attack on Gaza. General Allenby was then sent out with more troops; he defeated the Turks at Beersheba, drove them north, and entered Jerusalem, which had been in the possession of the infidels over seven hundred years.

We also attacked the Turks on the Tigris in Mesopotamia. We were successful at first, but a force sent to take Bagdad was too weak, and, though it won a victory, was driven by the Turks, who had been reinforced, into the town of Kut, and as two generals sent to relieve it were repulsed, it was forced to surrender. Afterwards a large army, mainly of Indian troops, was sent up under Sir Stanley Maude, who routed the Turks at Kut and took Bagdad, where he unfortunately died of cholera. But the work of driving the Turks up the Tigris and Euphrates went on.

The German Colonies in Africa. The Boer Rebellion.—Some of the German colonies in Africa fell to the British and French almost at once. The attack on German South-West Africa was delayed by a rebellion of some extreme Boers under the famous De Wet. But General Botha was loyal to the Empire and put down the rebellion and then conquered the German colony. German East Africa had a very able commander with a force mainly of highly-trained natives under German officers. A British attack on the chief port was repulsed, but afterwards, in a series of campaigns directed at first by the Boer General Smuts over a vast stretch of wild country, he was gradually driven south, though at the end of the war he was still holding out with greatly reduced forces in Portuguese territory. General Botha, to the sorrow of the Empire, died after the war, and was succeeded by General Smuts, who was equally loyal to the Empire.

1918. The German attack in France, Foch's Counter-stroke, and the Final Collapse.—We must return to the war in France. Owing to the failure of the submarine campaign, the only hope of the Germans was victory in France. In consequence of the peace with Russia and their Italian victory they now had superior numbers against the British and French, and though there were some hundreds of thousands of American troops in France they were not yet sufficiently trained to take the field. So at the end of March the Germans attacked the right British Army near St. Quentin in irresistible force, and in a fortnight won back more ground than they had lost in 1916 and 1917. The danger was so great that General Foch, now commanding the French Army, was made Commander-in-chief of the Allied forces. With French help, the Germans were held up in front of Amiens. Had they reached Amiens they would have cut our line, and might have won the war. Then in the summer they hurled back the French beyond the Aisne, and at the end of July even crossed the Marne. This gave an opening for which Foch had been waiting for his counter-stroke. With a reserve army he had collected, including some American divisions, he suddenly attacked the German flank between the Marne and Aisne with decisive success. At the beginning of August, while the Germans were still struggling against Foch, we inflicted a severe defeat on them in front of Amiens. More and more American divisions became available. Blow after blow followed all along the line; all the German reserves were used up. Back and back they were hustled; their main line of defence was lost; and a strong attack of French and Americans from Verdun threatened their main line of railway. Other disasters had occurred. The Austrians, Bulgarians, and Turks were utterly defeated by the end of October, and the new Emperor of Austria (the old Francis Joseph had died in 1917) and the King of Bulgaria lost their thrones.

Early in November the sailors of the German fleet

mutinied on being ordered to sea for a last desperate battle, a Revolution broke out in Germany, and the Kaiser abdicated and fled to Holland. So the German Commander asked for an armistice, and on November 11 accepted General Foch's very severe terms, which included the surrender of the fleet.

Photo by Demay, Paris.

Marshal Foch.

So the terrible war was over which cost us nearly a million lives, and raised the National Debt to over eight thousand million pounds, the annual interest on which is half as great again as our whole annual expenditure before the war.

Among the Ministers the chief credit for our victory belongs to Mr. Lloyd George. Mr. Asquith had formed a Coalition with the Unionists soon after the war began. But his management of the war did not meet with approval, and at the end of 1916 Mr. Lloyd George, who had been a great success as Minister of Munitions, forced him

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David Lloyd George.

to resign, and took his place as Prime Minister at the head of the Coalition.

The Treaty of Versailles, 1919.—Mr. Lloyd George, President Wilson of the United States of America, and the French Prime Minister were responsible for the terms of

the peace which the German Republic had to accept at Versailles on June 28. The first object of the treaty was to prevent Germany becoming again a danger to Europe. She agreed, therefore, to surrender, besides her fleet, a vast number of cannons, rifles, and all her military aircraft, and to discontinue conscription and keep only a very small army. She also restored Alsace and Lorraine to France, former Polish territory on the west bank of the Vistula to Poland, which became an independent state again, and she surrendered all her colonies. Further, she agreed to pay, during a course of years, a vast sum as an indemnity, chiefly to France in reparation for the terrible devastation of her territory and destruction of her towns, and the eastern bank of the Rhine was to be occupied by Allied troops till the terms of the peace were carried out.

Next, the terms of peace with Germany's allies were gradually settled. Austria and Turkey both lost a great deal of territory. Austria's Slav subjects (kinsmen to the Russians, Poles, and Serbians) had already revolted; and the northern ones, including Bohemia, were made into a separate state, while the southern ones joined the Serbian kingdom. The Poles in the north-east were joined to Poland; Hungary was made a separate state; and Italy was rewarded for joining the Allies with Italia Irredenta (unredeemed Italy), that is, the districts of Trent (south of the Tyrol) and of Trieste on the Adriatic. All that remained of Austria was the original German Archduchy, of which Vienna is the capital.

Turkey lost Syria, Palestine, the western part of Asia Minor, Mesopotamia, and Armenia. But a national government was set up at Angora in Asia Minor, which rejected the treaty and deposed the Sultan; and the trouble is not yet over.

The League of Nations: Disarmament.—After the peace with Germany a League of Nations was set up to bring about disarmament and prevent future wars by settling

disputes. It includes most nations of the world, also our Dominions and India ; our late foes, however, are not yet admitted. But though the President of the United States, Dr. Woodrow Wilson, was the chief founder of the League, the United States refused to enter it, and rejected his party at the next Presidential election in 1920. The League, therefore, could not discuss disarmament. However, it settled the disposal of the German colonies and Turkish provinces, by granting 'mandates' of administration, which practically mean possession. Thus Britain obtained Palestine, Mesopotamia, and German East Africa ; France, Syria and the German West African colonies ; the Union of South Africa obtained German South-West Africa ; and Australia, New Zealand, and Japan obtained various islands in the Pacific. In Mesopotamia we have set up, as king, an Arabian Emir, who had greatly helped General Allenby in his final victorious campaign in Palestine against the Turks. The League also did good work in settling various disputes which not unnaturally arose in the adjustment of the new frontiers.

As to a general disarmament, that question was taken up by the new President of the United States, Mr. Harding, who summoned a Conference in the autumn of 1921, at Washington, and proposed a reduction of the navies of Britain, the United States, and Japan, and a ten years' 'holiday' from building new warships. To this we and Japan agreed ; and so another step was taken in the direction of the peace of the world.

Russia and Bolshevism.—It was naturally difficult for Europe to settle down after the tremendous convulsion of the war. But the greatest difficulty came from Russia, where the 'Soviet' leaders (already mentioned), known also as 'Bolshevists,' had established Socialism, confiscating all private property ; they had brutally murdered the Tsar and his family, after some months of captivity, and they maintained their power by a ruthless slaughter of all opponents, except in Finland and the provinces on the

Western frontier, which broke away and set up separate republics. The condition of Russia under Bolshevism was terrible, far more terrible than that of France under the Revolution. The upper and middle classes, that is those who would not become Bolshevists, were reduced to utter destitution and misery, trade was ruined, the towns decayed, and in 1921 a terrible famine broke out. The Bolshevists, too, declared themselves enemies of all 'capitalist' governments. They sent out secret agents to other countries to try to foment revolutions; their armies also were active in Central Asia, and tried to stir up Afghanistan against us.

Britain after the War.—In the autumn of 1917 a Reform Bill (the fourth) had been passed, which extended the franchise, gave votes and the right to be elected members of Parliament to women over thirty, and reduced the length of Parliaments to five years. The duration of the Parliament elected in January 1911 had been prolonged during the war. In December 1918, after the Armistice, there was a General Election, in which those Liberals who would not support Mr. Lloyd George and the Coalition lost most of their seats, Mr. Asquith himself being defeated; and the Coalition had an enormous majority. But Mr. Lloyd George had no easy task; the gradual return to peace conditions in trade and manufactures caused many labour troubles. The men who returned after risking their lives for their country expected to be better treated than before the war, but though wages had risen, prices were rising still more, partly owing to the rise of wages, and continued to rise till 1921, when they began to fall again. So there were many strikes and much discontent. Bolshevist agents took advantage of the discontent to stir up revolution, and some of the Labour leaders joined in with them; others worked mainly for the better conditions of the men. The worst strikes were the following: a Railway strike which lasted over a week in the autumn of 1919; it would have cut off the supplies of London had

not the Government organised a motor-lorry service, and people, including peers, come forward as engine-drivers, porters, and guards, so that a few trains could be run; also a coal-miners' strike in the autumn of 1920, which lasted nearly a fortnight; and another far more serious one in the spring of 1921, lasting several months, during which many works in the iron trade had to close. In all these Mr. Lloyd George succeeded in bringing about settlements by conferences of employers and men's representatives. Another trouble was unemployment; trade was brisk for a time after the peace, then came a great decline, and in 1921 nearly two million persons were out of work. The Government had to grant allowances to the unemployed, of which advantage was taken by the idlers who did not want to work. At the same time the upper and middle classes were suffering from the high prices and crushing war taxation, except such traders as had made large profits in the war by selling supplies to the Government and were known as 'profiteers.' Many landowners and peers found themselves obliged to sell their estates.

The Dominions and India.—The natural result of the war was to strengthen the bonds of the Empire. No workable plan of Imperial Federation has indeed been found. But in the latter part of the war the Dominion Premiers were in London and admitted to the War Council, and this will have its effect on the future relations of the Home and Dominion Governments. The tours of the Prince of Wales in Canada in 1919 and Australia and New Zealand in 1920 have had the happiest results, for his simple geniality won all hearts and so strengthened the common bond of the Crown. In South Africa the Boer General Smuts, who succeeded General Botha as Prime Minister, and took a large part in founding the League of Nations, defeated the Boer Republicans at the last elections.

In India the unrest fanned by a few agitators still continues, though great advances have been made towards self-government. In 1919 an Act of Parliament set up a

national Indian Parliament with limited powers, which was opened the next year by the Duke of Connaught. India now ranks as a Dominion with a place in the League of Nations. At the end of 1921 the Prince of Wales added to his services to the Empire by visiting India, and was enthusiastically welcomed by vast crowds, in spite of the attempts of the agitators to boycott his reception.

Ireland and Sinn Fein.—The Irish trouble again became acute during the war. The Nationalist leader had guaranteed the loyalty of his party. But a new party arose, known as 'Sinn Fein' (pronounced Shin Fain, and meaning 'ourselves alone'), which wanted complete independence from England. Encouraged by promises of help from Germany, the Sinn Feiners rose in Dublin, at Easter 1916, and seized the Post Office and other buildings, and held out several days till they were shelled by a destroyer brought up the river Liffey. All the Germans did for them was to send a ship disguised as a Norwegian trader with a cargo of old rifles taken from Russia. She reached the Irish coast, but fell into our hands, and was sunk by her commander.

The rising, and the execution of several of the leaders, only served to create among the southern Irish sympathy for the Sinn Feiners; and at the General Election of 1918, partly, it is said, by intimidation, they defeated all the Nationalists except seven. They refused, however, to come to the British Parliament, and set themselves up as an Irish Republican Assembly, known as Dail Eireann, under a President named De Valera, born in America of a Spanish father and Irish mother. In 1920 a new Home Rule Bill was passed, setting up two Parliaments in Ireland, one for the six north-eastern Ulster counties and another for the rest. But meanwhile a Sinn Fein rebellion broke out. There was no open warfare; the tactics of the rebels, the 'Irish Republican Army,' were to murder individual policemen and soldiers and any one they regarded as a traitor, attack isolated police

barracks, and burn country houses. These acts caused reprisals on our side which greatly embarrassed the Government. By the summer of 1921 our forces were getting the upper hand of the rebels when, after the opening of the northern Parliament at Belfast, the Government, to stop the horrors of the war, arranged a truce and held a conference in London with Sinn Fein delegates. After long discussions a general agreement was reached, but the Sinn Fein delegates would not consent to an oath of allegiance to the Crown unless Ulster would agree to union. This the Ulster Parliament naturally refused to do. However, after a protracted sitting of the Conference this difficulty was got over, and the 'Treaty,' as it was called, was signed. Southern Ireland, henceforth to be known as the 'Irish Free State,' was to have the position of a Dominion, with certain restrictions as to military forces, ports and religion; the members of its Parliament were to swear faithfulness to the Crown as head of the Empire; and Ulster was to join or not as it liked.

There was great joy in Ireland at the signature of the Treaty, but it was carried in the Sinn Fein Assembly only after vehement opposition from a republican party led by Mr. De Valera himself. Civil war followed, and the republicans were crushed. The one difficulty remaining is the boundary of Ulster.

SUMMARY

Trouble at home and abroad—The House of Lords and the Parliament Bill; after a General Election it is forced to accept it—The Ulster Protestants arm against Home Rule—The ambitions of Germany; the Bagdad Railway—Austria's designs in the Balkans—The Balkan States defeat Turkey and fight over the spoils. 1914. The Ministry and the Ulster Volunteers; the Home Rule Conference fails—The Serajevo Murders—Austria's aggressive demands on Serbia; Russia supports Serbia; Sir Edward Grey's efforts for peace—Germany declares war on Russia and France, and invades Belgium—Britain's demand

that its neutrality should be respected refused ; war—The rally of the British Empire—The total defeat of Germany after four years' fighting ; and the Treaty of Versailles, 1919—Russia and Bolshevism—Labour troubles at home—The Dominions and India—Sinn Fein Rebellion in Ireland—The Conference and Treaty.

DATES.

1914. Aug. 4. War declared with Germany.
1914. Battle of the Marne.
1916. Battle of Jutland.
1917. United States join Allies.
Russian Revolution.
Reform Bill.
1918. Nov. 11. The Armistice.
1919. June 28. Treaty of Versailles.
1920. Home Rule Bill.
Government of India Bill.
1921. Naval Disarmament Agreement at Washington.
The Irish Treaty.

INDEX

Abercromby, Sir Ralph, 858.
Aberdeen, Lord, 979, 981, 1004-1011, 1014.
Acts of Parliament, 917.
Aeroplane, 1090.
Afghan Wars, 984, 1038-1040.
Africa, 1057, 1121.
Albert of Saxe-Coburg, Prince, 965, 979, 1026.
Albuera, Battle of, 887.
Alexander II., Tsar, 1012, 1013.
Allahabad, 1018.
Allenby, General, 1120.
Alma, Battle of, 1007.
America, Civil War, 1025; Colonies, 799-803; War of Independence, 804-814; 1812-1814, 892.
Amiens, Treaty of, 858.
Anarchists and Nihilists, 1101.
Antarctic Circle, 828.
Architecture and Art, 1103.
Army and Navy, 953, 1033.
Asquith, Mr., 1122, 1125.
Assaye, Battle of, 874.
Austen, Jane, 936, 937.
Austerlitz, Battle of, 872.
Australia, 827, 829, 995, 998-1000, 1065-1068, 1081.
Austria, 797, 798, 838, 839, 844, 847, 855, 856, 867, 870, 872, 884, 894, 899, 974, 975, 977, 1013, 1024, 1031, 1032, 1036, 1037, 1055, 1110, 1114, 1116, 1118, 1123.

Balaklava, Battle of, 1008.
Balfour, Arthur, 1057, 1081.
Barham, Lord, 866.
Battleships, 1092.
Beaconsfield, Earl of. *See* Disraeli.
Belgium, 842, 851, 899, 915, 926, 1114.
Beresford, General, 885, 887.
Bicycles, 1089-1090.
Bismarck, Prince, 1031, 1032, 1036, 1055.
Blücher, Marshal, 894-898.
Boers, 990-995, 1045, 1046, 1060, 1068-1075, 1079, 1120.
Bolshevism, 1125, 1126.
Bonaparte, Jerome, 876.
—— Joseph, 875, 881, 885, 889, 890.
—— Louis, 875, 974, 981, 1024, 1032.
—— Napoleon, 843, 847, 849, 851-855, 862-872, 874-884, 886-898, 904.
Boston Tea Party, 803.
Botany Bay, 828, 829.
Botha, General, 1121.
Bristol riots, 920.
British Foreign Bible Society, 930.
Bulgaria, 1035, 1036, 1112.
Buller, General, 1069.
Bunker Hill, 804.
Burgoyne, General, 808, 810.
Burke, Edmund, 840.
Burney, Fanny, 936.
Burns, Robert, 933.
Bushrangers, 999.
Bute, Earl of, 797.
Byron, Lord, 910, 934.

Cabs and Omnibuses, 956, 1090.
Campbell, Sir Colin, 1020-1022.
—— Thomas, 935.
Camperdown, 851, 856.
Canada, 798, 806, 815, 988, 989, 1065-1068, 1081.
Canals and coaches, 943, 1085.
Canning, George, 878, 885, 908-910.
—— Lord, 1014, 1018.
Cannons and guns, 1091.
Cape of Good Hope, 858, 877, 900, 990, 994.
Cape St. Vincent, Battle of, 848.
Carlyle, 938.
Caroline of Brunswick, Queen, 903, 906.
Castlereagh, 885, 908.
Catholic Emancipation, 911.
Cato Street Conspiracy, 906.
Cavendish, Lord Frederick, 1044.
Cawnpore, 1017-1023.
Ceylon, 858.
Chamberlain, Joseph, 1052, 1053, 1057, 1061, 1068, 1081.
Charles X., 915.
Chartists, 968, 975.
Children and women workers, 952.
China, 1048.
Chinese War, 1014.
Church Missionary Society, 930.
—— revival, 1096.
Cinematograph, the, 1091.
Cintra, Convention of, 881.
Clinton, General, 811, 812.
Clive, Lord, 801.
Coal and iron, 832.
Cobden, Richard, 970, 981, 1006.
Coleridge, Samuel Taylor, 934.
Collingwood, Admiral, 867-870.
Colonial government, 989, 997, 1079.
Confederation of the Rhine, 875, 876, 891.
Congo Free State, 1058.
Constitutional monarchy, 961.
Cook, Captain, 827.
Corn Laws, 970-972.
Cornwallis, Lord, 812.
—— Admiral, 862, 864, 866.
Corunna, Battle of, 884, 885.
Cotton famine, 1025.
Cowper, William, 933.
Cricket and rowing, 957.
Crimea, 1006-1010, 1013.
Custom duties on colonies, 801.

Dalhousie, Lord, 1014.
De Grasse, Count, 812, 814.
De Lesseps, 1085.
Delhi, 1016-1019.
Denmark, 858, 878.
Derby, Earl of, 972, 978, 1023, 1028, 1029.
Devonshire, Duke of (Lord Hartington), 1043, 1052, 1053.
De Wet, 1072, 1073, 1121.
Dickens, Charles, 938.
Disraeli, Benjamin, 972, 978, 1028, 1029, 1034-1036, 1043.
Dress, 938-942, 1097-1099.
Duncan, Admiral, 849-851.
Dutch, the, 811, 827.

East India Company, 801, 816, 818, 1022.
—— Indies, Dutch, 877.
Edgeworth, Maria, 936.
Edinburgh Review, 937.
Edward VII., 1076-1081.
Egypt, 851, 855, 858, 1046, 1061.
Electric telegraph, 1087; light, 1088.
"Eliot, George," 1106.
Emmanuel, Victor, 975.
Evangelicals, 929.

Factory Act, 952.
Farming, 833.
Foch, General, 1121, 1122.
Fox, Charles James, 820, 840, 842, 874, 875.
France, 797, 798, 808, 810-814, 838-845, 885-887, 890, 891, 893, 898, 1003, 1055, 1078, 1115-1117, 1121, 1122.
Frederick the Great, 797, 798, 801.
French, Sir John, 1115.
French Republic, 974.
—— Revolution, 833, 915, 974.

Gage, General, 804, 806.
Gallipoli, Battle of, 1116.
Games, 1097.
Garibaldi, 1025.
Gas introduced, 956.
George III., 795-904.
—— IV., 903, 906-912.
—— V., 1109.
George, Lloyd, 1123, 1126, 1127.
Germany, 875, 891, 899, 974, 1032, 1055, 1068, 1078, 1110-1123.
Gibraltar, 810-812, 814.
Gladstone, William, 972, 981, 1027, 1031, 1034, 1035, 1042-1046, 1049, 1053
Gold discoveries, 1000.
Goldsmith, Oliver, 932.
Gordon, General, 1049.
Greece, 909, 910, 1030, 1112.
Grenville, George, 799, 800.
Grey, Earl, 915, 917, 919, 921, 922.
—— Sir Edward, 1112, 1113.
Guns and cannons, 1091.

Haig, Sir Douglas, 1116.
Hanover, 862.
Hastings, Warren, 816, 826, 827.
Havelock, General, 1018-1022.
Haynau, General, 977.
Hicks, General, 1047.
Hill, Rowland, 1082.
Holland, 844, 899.
Holy Alliance, 899, 900.
Hood, Lord, 847.
Hottentots, 992, 993.
Howard, John, 930.
Howe, General, 806-808, 811.
—— Lord, 842, 845.
Hungarians, 975.

India, 982-988, 1014-1022, 1126, 1127.
—— Bill, 825-827.
Indian Mutiny, 1014-1022.
Inkerman, Battle of, 1009.
Ireland, 815, 842, 848, 859, 861, 971, 975, 1029, 1032, 1043, 1051, 1053, 1109, 1113, 1127.
Iron and Coal, 832.
Italy, 975, 1025, 1031, 1033, 1114, 1123.

Jacobins, 843.
Jameson, Dr., 1061.
Japanese, 1078, 1079.
Jena, Battle of, 875.
Joffre, General, 1115.
Johnson, Dr., 930-932.
Jutland, Battle of, 1116-1119.

Kaffirs, 993, 994.
Keats, 936.

Kent, Duchess of, 913-915, 922, 926, 961.
Kingsley, Charles, 1106.
Kitchener, Lord, 1061, 1063, 1070, 1073, 1114-1116.
Kossuth, 977.
Kruger, President, 1059, 1068-1073.

Lawrence, Sir Henry, 1017, 1019.
—— John, 1017.
League of Nations, 1124.
Leipsic, Battle of, 891.
Leopold, Prince (afterwards King), 913, 914, 926, 960.
"Letters of Junius," 802.
Ligny, Battle of, 894.
Literature, 1105, 1106.
London, Growth of, 955, 1104.
Louis XVI., 834-839; XVII., 892; XVIII., 892, 893, 897.
—— Philippe, 915, 974.
Lucknow, 1017-1020.

Macadam, 944.
Macaulay, Lord, 937, 984.
Machinery, 830.
Mahrattas, War with, 818, 819, 874.
Malta, 856, 858, 862, 900.
Manufactures, 830.
Maoris, 1000-1002.
Marchand, Major, 1063.
Marie Antoinette, 834, 843.
Marne, The, Battle of, 1115, 1121.
Mauritius, 900.
Melbourne, Lord, 923, 925, 961-964, 967.
Mesopotamia, 1120, 1124.
Minorca, 798, 810, 812.
Mons, Battle of, 1115.
Montenegro, 1036.
Moore, Sir John, 880, 885.
—— Thomas, 935.
More, Hannah, 932.
Mutinies at Spithead and the Nore, 849.
Mysore, 874.

Nana Sahib, 1017-1019, 1022.
Navarino, Battle of, 910.
Nelson, Horatio, 845-858, 862-870.
Newcastle, Duke of, 797.
New South Wales, 828, 997.
New Zealand, 828, 1000-1002, 1065, 1079-1081.
Newspapers, 937, 1106-1107.
Ney, Marshal, 893, 898.
Nicholas, the Tsar, 887-890, 1004, 1006, 1009, 1012.
Nicholson, General, 1019.
Nightingale, Florence, 1010.
Nihilists and Anarchists, 1107.
Nile, Battle of, 853.
North, Lord, 802-814, 823, 824.
Norway, 899.

O'Connell, Daniel, 911.
Omdurman, Battle of, 1016.
Omnibuses and cabs, 956, 1090, 1105.
Oporto, Battle of, 886.
Orange, Prince of, 842, 844.
Orange Free State, 994, 1079.
Outram, General, 1020-1022.

Palestine, 1120, 1124.
Palmerston, Lord, 925, 926, 974, 977, 979, 1005, 1011, 1014, 1023, 1025-1027.
Parker, Sir Hyde, 856, 858.
Parliament, Reform of, 901; Acts of, 917; Bill of 1910, 1109.
Parnell, Charles, 1043-1045.
Peel, Sir Robert, 908, 910, 919, 921, 922, 925, 964, 966-968, 971-974, 978.
Peninsular War, 880.
Penny Postage, 1083.
Philadelphia, Capture of, 808.
Photography, 1090.
Pitt, William (Earl of Chatham), 795-802, 810.
—— (the Younger), 820-826, 841, 842, 855, 859-861, 863, 870, 872, 944.
Poland, 844, 899.
Police, London, 956.
Portugal, 879-881, 884, 885-887.
Prisons, 1097.
Prussia, 838, 844, 875, 876, 894, 896, 897, 953, 1031.
Punch, 1106.
Punjaub, 1017.

Quarterly Review, 937.
Quatre Bras, Battle of, 894.
Queensland, 998.

Raglan, Lord, 1006-1010, 1012.
Raikes, Robert, 930.
Railways, 942, 946-950, 1084, 1105.
Reform Bill, 917-922, 1028, 1029, 1045, 1125.
Reign of Terror, 843.
Religious Tract Society, 930.
Rhodes, Cecil, 1059-1061.
Roberts, Lord, 1022, 1039, 1040, 1070-1073.
Robespierre, 838, 844.
Rockingham, 800, 823.
Rodney, Admiral, 811-814.
Roumania, 1036.
Rowing and cricket, 957.
Russell, Lord John, 911, 918, 921, 925, 973, 977-979, 1014, 1023, 1027.
Russia, 797, 858, 867, 875, 889, 890, 894, 899, 909, 910, 1004-1014, 1033-1038, 1051, 1055, 1078, 1079, 1116, 1125.

St. Quentin, Battle of, 1121.
St. Vincent, Earl of (Sir John Jervis), 847, 848, 850, 851.
Salamanca, Battle of, 889.
Salisbury, Lord, 1036, 1051, 1053, 1061, 1063.
Salonica, 1116.
Saratoga, surrender of, 808.
Scientific Inventions, 1088-1092, 1094.
Scott, Sir Walter, 934, 936.
Seaside resorts, 957-959.
Sebastopol, 1006-1008, 1012.
Serbia, 1035, 1036, 1112, 1113, 1116.
Seringapatam, capture of, 874.
Seven Years' War, 798.
Shaftesbury, Earl of, 953.
Shelley, Percy Bysshe, 935.
Sikh Wars, 988.
Sinn Fein, 1127.
Slavery, abolition of, 930, 992.
Smith, Sir Sidney, 855.
Smuts, General, 1121.
Socialism, 1101, 1102.
Social life, 1095.
Somme, Battle of, 1116.
Soudan, 1057-1060, 1063.
Soult, Marshal, 883-892, 896
South Africa, 990-995, 1058-1061, 1079, 1081.
Southey, Robert, 934, 936.
Spain, 797, 798, 810, 847, 865, 879, 883, 889, 890, 899.
Stamp Tax on colonies, 799, 800.
Steamboats, 942, 944.
Steam power, 831, 1086.
Stephenson, George, 946-949.
——Robert, 1084, 1085.
Strikes, 1102, 1126.
Submarine telegraph and cables, 1087.
Submarines, 1094, 1118.
Sunday-schools, 930.
Sweden, 899.
Sydney, 829.

Talavera, Battle of, 886.
Tasmania, 997-1000.
Telephone, the, 1088.
Tennyson, Lord, 1105.
Tippoo Sahib, 874.
Tone, Wolfe, 842, 848, 860.
Torpedoes, 1094.
Torres Vedras, 886, 887.
Trade Unions, 969, 1102.
Trafalgar, Battle of, 868.
Tramways, 1089, 1105.
Transvaal, 1040, 1059, 1079.
Trinidad, 858.
Tunnels, 1085.
Turkey, 909, 910, 1004, 1005, 1035-1038, 1115-1124.

Union of England and Ireland, 860
United States of America, 814, 892 990, 1065, 1119.

Van Diemen's Land, 997, 998.
Venice, 851.
Verdun, 1116.
Versailles, Treaty of, 1123.
Victoria, Queen, 903, 913, 926, 960-1075.
—— (Australia), 998, 1000.
Villeneuve, 865-868.
Vimeiro, Battle of, 880.
Vittoria, Battle of, 890.

War in the Air, 1118.
—— of Liberation, 891.
—— with Germany, 1114-1122.
Washington Conference, 1124.
Washington, General, 804-814.
Waterloo, Battle of, 894-897.
Watt, James, 831, 942, 956.
Wealth, growth of, 1100.
Wellesley, Marquis of (Lord Mornington), 874.
Wellington, Duke of (Sir A. Wellesley), 872-874, 880-882 884-892, 894-896, 910, 911, 915, 916 919, 921, 922, 964, 968, 972, 981.
Wesley, John, 929.
West Indies, 811, 865, 866.
Wilberforce, 930.
Wilkes, John, 799, 802.
William IV., 913-926.
Wilson, President, 1125.
Wireless telegraphy, 1089.
Wolseley (Sir Garnet), Lord, 1022 1047, 1049, 1050.
Women, position of, 1099.
—— and children workers, 942.
Wordsworth, William, 934, 936.

Ypres, Battle of, 1115, 1117.

Zulus, 993, 994, 1040-1042.